



DELHI UNIVERSITY
LIBRARY

DELHI UNIVERSITY LIBRARY SYSTEM

H2

Cl. No.

P111:7

Ac. No.

1070306

Date of release of loan

This book should be returned on or before the date last stamped below. An overdue charge of 20np. will be charged for each day the book is kept overtime.

0 < SEP 1959



The
Century
Handbook
of
Writing

The Century Handbook of Writing

by

GARLAND GREEVER

and

EASLEY S. JONES



Fourth Edition

New York

D. Appleton-Century Company

INCORPORATED

Copyright, 1933, 1942, by
GARLAND GREEVER AND EASLEY S. JONES

*All rights reserved. This book, or parts
thereof, must not be reproduced in any
form without permission of the publisher.*

462

Copyright, 1918, 1922, by The Century Co.

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

Preface

This handbook treats essential matters of grammar, diction, spelling, mechanics; and develops with thoroughness the principles of sentence structure. Larger units of composition it leaves to the texts in formal rhetoric.

The book is built on a decimal plan. Headings of the articles are summarized by a chart inside the front cover. Here the student can see at a glance the resources of the volume, and the instructor can find immediately the number he wishes to write in the margin of a theme. The chart and the decimal scheme together make the rules accessible for instant reference.

By another device the book throws upon the student the responsibility of teaching himself. Each article begins with a concise rule, which is illustrated by examples; then follows a short "parallel exercise" which the instructor may assign by adding an *x* to the number he writes in the margin of a theme. While correcting this exercise the student will give attention to the rule and will acquire theory and practice at the same time. Moreover, every group of ten articles is followed by mixed exercises; these may be used for review, or imposed in the margin of a theme as a penalty for flagrant or repeated error. Thus friendly counsel is backed by discipline, and the instructor has the means of compelling the student to make rapid progress toward good English.

Although a handbook of this nature is in some ways

PREFACE

arbitrary, the arbitrariness is always in the interest of simplicity. The book does have simplicity, permits instant reference, and provides an adequate drill which may be assigned at the stroke of a pen.

Preface to the Fourth Edition

This Fourth Edition of the *Century Handbook* embodies a complete overhauling of the Third. It provides new exercises. It avoids lettered subdivisions in the first half of the book, and reduces the number of subdivisions in the last half. It adds new material and recombines the old wherever change means improvement.

Contents

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

	PAGE
Completeness of Thought	3
1 Fragments Wrongly Used as Sentences	3
2 Necessary Words Omitted	4
3 Ideas Undeveloped	7
4 Incomplete Constructions	8
5 Uncompleted Comparisons	9
6 Illogical Comparisons	10
7 Illogical Matching of Other Elements	11
8 Transitions Not Supplied	12
9 EXERCISE IN COMPLETENESS OF THOUGHT	14
A. Fragments Misused as Sentences	14
B. Necessary Words Omitted, Ideas Undeveloped, and Constructions Not Completed	15
C. Uncompleted and Illogical Comparisons	16
D. Illogical Matching of Other Elements, and Transitions Not Supplied	17
Unity of Thought	18
10 Run-together Sentences	18
11 Unrelated Ideas	20
12 Relationship of Ideas to Be Shown	22
13 Unnecessary Ideas or Details	23
14 Choppy Sentences to Be Combined	24
15 <i>And</i> or <i>So</i> Sentences to Be Cured by Division	26
16 <i>And</i> Sentences to Be Cured by Subordination	27
17 Subordination Thwarted by <i>and which</i> , or <i>and</i> with Phrases	29
18 Upside-down Subordination	30

CONTENTS

	PAGE
19 EXERCISE IN UNITY OF THOUGHT	31
A. Run-together Sentences	31
B. Run-together Sentences	32
C. One Thought in a Sentence	33
D. Excessive Predication	34
E. Excessive Coordination	36
F. Thwarted and Upside-down Subordination	37
Clearness of Thought	39
REFERENCE	39
20 Pronoun without Antecedent	39
21 Pronoun with Half-Lost Antecedent	41
COHERENCE	44
22 Dangling Participle	44
23 Other Dangling Elements	45
24 Intercepted Modifier	46
25 Squinting Modifier	47
26 Misplaced Adverb or Directive Expression	48
27 Awkwardly Separated Elements	49
28 Natural Sequence	50
29 EXERCISE IN REFERENCE AND COHERENCE	52
A. Reference of Pronouns	52
B. Dangling or Semi-Dangling Elements	53
C. Misplaced Modifiers in General	54
D. Coherence in General	55
PARALLEL STRUCTURE	57
30 Parallel Structure for Parallel Thoughts	57
31 Correlatives	59
CONSISTENCY	61
32 Shift in Subject or Voice	61
33 Shift in Number, Person, or Tense	62
34 Mixed Constructions	64
35 Double Negatives	65

CONTENTS

	PAGE
USE OF CONNECTIVES BETWEEN CLAUSES	67
36 Omission of Connectives	67
37 Inexact Connectives	69
38 Lists of Connectives	71
39 EXERCISE IN CLEARNESS	77
A. Parallel Structure	77
B. Shift in Subject or Voice	79
C. Shift in Person, Number, or Tense	80
D. The Mixed Construction and the Double Negative	80
E. Connectives Omitted or Repeated	82
F. The Exact Connective	83
 Emphasis	 85
40 Emphasis by Position	85
41 Emphasis by Separation	86
42 Emphasis by Subordination	87
43 Emphasis through Suspense and Climax	89
44 Emphasis through Balance or Contrast	91
45 Emphasis through Specific Statements and Concrete Details	92
46 The Weak Passive Voice	93
47 Effective Repetition	95
48 Offensive Repetition	96
49 EXERCISE IN EMPHASIS	101
A. Lack of Emphasis in General	101
B. Lack of Suspense or of Climax	102
C. Lack of Parallelism or of Active Predication	103
D. Lack of Specific Statements or Concrete De- tails	104
E. The Problem of Repetition	105

CONTENTS

GRAMMAR

	PAGE
50 Case	109
a Possessive	110
b Nominative	111
c Objective	112
d Case of a Pronoun in a Subordinate Clause	113
51 Agreement of a Pronoun with Its Antecedent	116
a Singular: <i>each, any, every</i> , etc.	116
b Plural: <i>both, few, many</i> , etc.	116
c Collective Nouns	116
52 Agreement of a Verb with Its Subject	117
a Intervening Words	117
b Singular Subjects Joined by <i>or</i> or <i>nor</i>	118
c Collective Nouns	118
d Words Plural in Form but Singular in Meaning	119
e <i>Don't</i> Misused for <i>doesn't</i>	119
53 Adjective and Adverb	120
a Adjective Misused for Adverb	120
b After Verbs Pertaining to the Senses	121
c "Made" Adjectives	121
54 Other Functional Misfits	122
a Substitution	122
b Omission	123
c Duplication	124
55 Tense and Mode	125
a Tense	125
b Mode	128
56 Principal Parts, Comparison	132
a Confusion of Past Tense and Past Participle	132
b Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs	135
57 The Parts of Speech	139
58 The Terms of Grammar	148
59 EXERCISE IN GRAMMAR	163
A. Case of Nouns and Pronouns	163

CONTENTS

	PAGE
B. Case of Nouns and Pronouns	164
C. Agreement of Pronoun with Antecedent and Verb with Subject	165
D. Agreement of Pronoun with Antecedent and Verb with Subject	166
E. Adjective and Adverb	167
F. Adjective and Adverb	168
G. Other Functional Misfits	169
H. Tense and Mode	170
I. <i>Shall</i> and <i>will</i> , <i>should</i> and <i>would</i>	171
J. Principal Parts— <i>lie</i> and <i>lay</i> , <i>sit</i> and <i>set</i> , <i>rise</i> and <i>raise</i>	171
K. Principal Parts—Miscellaneous Verbs	173
L. Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs	174

DICTION

60 Wordiness	177
61 Jargon, Triteness	179
62 Slang	183
63 Idioms	185
64 The Exact Word	187
65 Aliveness, Concreteness	190
66 Rhythm and Sound, Naturalness, Ease	192
67 A Consistent Style	194
68 Glossary of Faulty Diction	196
69 EXERCISE IN DICTION	211
A. Wordiness	211
B. The Exact Word	213
C. Words Sometimes Confused in Meaning	214
D. Diction in General	215

SPELLING

70 Studying Your Own Errors	220
71 Spelling by Ear, Pronunciation	222

CONTENTS

	PAGE
72 Spelling by Eye, Visualizing	225
73 Misleading Resemblances between Words	227
74 Words in <i>es</i> or <i>ie</i>	231
75 Doubling a Final Consonant	232
76 Dropping Final <i>e</i>	233
77 Plurals	234
a Plurals in <i>s</i> or <i>es</i>	234
b Nouns Ending in <i>y</i>	235
c Compound Nouns	235
d Letters, Signs, and Figures	235
e Old Plurals	236
f Foreign Plurals	236
78 Compounds	237
a Hyphen between Words Serving as a Single Adjective before a Noun	237
b Words Written Solid or Separate	238
c Consulting a Dictionary	238
79 SPELLING LIST OF 500 WORDS (200 boldfaced)	239

MANUSCRIPT STYLE AND STUDY HABITS

80 Manuscript Usage and Consistency	247
a Consistency	247
b Paper, Ink, and Endorsement	247
c Title	248
d Spacing	248
e Handwriting, Typewriting	249
f Alterations	249
g Reference to Sources	249
81 Capital Letters	250
a Proper Names	251
b General Words Regularly Added to Place Names and Organizations	252
c Trade Names	252

CONTENTS

82	Italics, Abbreviations, Numbers	254
	a Italics (underscoring for emphasis or clearness)	254
	b Abbreviations (avoiding in ordinary writing)	255
	c Numbers (to be written out)	256
83	Syllabication	257
	a Division between Syllables	257
	b Consonants at Junction of Two Syllables	258
	c Breaking Off at Prefix or Suffix	258
84	Letters	259
	a The Heading, the Inside Address, and the Greeting	259
	b The Body	261
	c The Greeting, the Close, and the Signature	263
	d The Outside Address	265
	e Miscellaneous Directions, Models	267
	f Formal Notes (Invitations)	269
85	Paragraphs	271
	a Indention, Length, Paragraphing Dialogue	271
	b Paragraph Unity	273
	c Paragraph Coherence	274
	d Methods of Developing a Paragraph	276
86	Outlines	283
	a The Topic Outline	283
	b The Sentence Outline	284
	c Indention, Numbering	284
	d Parallelism	285
	e Coordination and Subordination	286
	f Excessive Subordination, Unmated Subtopic	288
87	How to Study	289
	a How to Read	289
	b How to Take Notes	290
	c How to Paraphrase	291
	d How to Summarize	293
	e How to Write a Précis	294
88	How to Find Information in a Library	298

CONTENTS

	PAGE
a How to Pursue a Topic	299
b Consulting the Card Catalogue	300
c Making Out a Call Slip	301
d Consulting Reference Works	301
89 EXERCISE IN MANUSCRIPT FORM, ABBREVIATIONS, NUMBERS, ETC.	305

PUNCTUATION

90 The Comma	309
a Commas to Enclose Interrupters (Parenthetic Elements)	309
b Commas to Set Off Non-restrictive Modifiers	314
c The Comma to Separate a Broken Series . .	318
d The Comma between Main Clauses Joined by	
a Conjunction	321
e Misleading Combinations of Words . . .	322
91 The Apostrophe	325
a Contractions	325
b Possessives	326
92 Quotation Marks	329
a Ordinary Direct Discourse	329
b Other Uses of Quotation Marks	331
c Needless Use of Quotation Marks	332
93 End Marks	332
94 The Semicolon	334
a Between Independent Clauses <i>Not</i> Joined by a Conjunction	334
b Between Independent Clauses <i>That Are</i> Joined by a Conjunction	335
c To Separate a Complicated Series	336
d Not Used as a Mark of Introduction	336
95 The Colon	336
96 The Dash	338
97 Parenthesis Marks and Brackets	339

CONTENTS

	PAGE
98 Superfluous or Wrongly Used Marks	341
a Superfluous Commas	341
b Unnecessary Doubling of Marks	342
c Unnecessary Uses of the Colon	342
d Unnecessary Dash	342
e Miscellaneous Errors	343
99 EXERCISE IN PUNCTUATION	344
A. Comma or Semicolon to Separate Main Clauses	344
B. The Comma to Separate Items of a Series	345
C. Commas to Enclose a Parenthetic Element	345
D. All Uses of the Comma—a Review	346
E. All Uses of the Comma—a Review	346
F. All Marks of Punctuation—a Review	347
G. All Marks of Punctuation—a Review	348
INDEX	349



Sentence Structure



COMPLETENESS OF THOUGHT

The first thing to make certain is that the thought of a sentence is complete. A fragment which has no meaning when read alone, or a sentence from which is omitted a necessary element or idea, leaves unstated something which the reader should be told.

FRAGMENTS WRONGLY USED AS SENTENCES

1. Do not write part of a sentence as if it were a complete sentence. Be sure that each statement (a) contains a subject and a verb ¹ and (b) makes sense when it stands alone.

DETACHED VERBAL PHRASE: The glider soared high over the field.
Riding a strong air current.

RIGHT: The glider soared high over the field, riding a strong air current. [Or] The glider soared high over the field. It was riding a strong air current.

DETACHED ADVERB CLAUSE: We like being in the mountains. Although the nights are cold.

RIGHT: We like being in the mountains, although the nights are cold.

DETACHED ADJECTIVE CLAUSE: The hunter tried to move the stone. Which he found very heavy.

RIGHT: The hunter tried to move the stone, which he found very heavy. [Or] The hunter tried to move the stone. He found it very heavy.

DETACHED APPOSITIVE: I am studying the oboe. The hautboy of Shakespeare's plays. [Use a *comma*, not a period.]

¹ The parts of speech and terms of grammar are explained in §§ 57 and 58.

DETACHED ITEMS OF A SERIES (especially noun clauses or infinitives): The council has voted that the library be enlarged. That workshops be built. That the school be repainted from top to bottom. [Use *commas*, not periods, to separate the items.]

NOTE.—An incomplete sentence is sometimes used to gain emphasis or to show that a series of impressions is confused or rapid. "He could not boast of his victory. Because he had not won it." "Little Conrad wants to drive a fire engine. To have enough ice cream. And to own a five-and-ten for one day." Such a device is now and then effective, but its use should be left to skilled, mature writers. The beginner, whose mastery of the sentence has yet to be proved, should not abandon grammar for uncertain ventures in style.

EXERCISE

1. It was Jones Beach. A recreation area maintained by the state.
2. The flag will be up. If there is any mail in the box.
3. The reporter told us that he had arrived late. That the game was then in the second quarter. And that two touchdowns had already been scored.
4. Miners seldom find pure minerals. Gold, for instance, often being mixed with quartz.
5. He left Iowa in 1928. When Jane was only six.

NECESSARY WORDS OMITTED

2. Do not omit a word or phrase which is necessary to an immediate understanding of a sentence.¹

ARTICLE OMITTED: I consulted the secretary and president. [Did the speaker consult one man or two?]

RIGHT: I consulted the secretary and the president. [Or] I consulted the president, who is also the secretary.

COMPLETENESS OF THOUGHT

2

PREPOSITION OMITTED: Water passes through the cement as well as the bricks.

RIGHT: Water passes through the cement as well as through the bricks.

CONJUNCTION OMITTED: Lewis says that he will return to the farm but he won't remain there. [How much has Lewis said?]

RIGHT: Lewis says that he will return to the farm but that he won't remain there. [Or] Although Lewis says that he will return to the farm, he won't remain there.

SIGN OF THE INFINITIVE OMITTED: We wish to join with those who love freedom and justice, and end needless suffering.

RIGHT: We wish to join with those who love freedom and justice, and to end needless suffering.

AUXILIARY OMITTED: Before a diving contest James would find out what his opponent could do and practice with that in mind.

RIGHT: Before a diving contest James would find out what his opponent could do and would practice with that in mind.

PRONOUN AND VERB OMITTED: His name was Tony and a good first baseman. [*First baseman* appears to refer to *name*.]

RIGHT: His name was Tony. He was a good first baseman. [Or] This boy, whose name was Tony, was a good first baseman.

TELEGRAPHIC STYLE: Letter arrived today. Will write. [The meaning is clear, but the manner, which is suitable for telegrams, headlines ("Dog Beats Cat"), and titles ("Boy Meets Girl"),

¹ Completeness and clearness generally go together. In conversation or informal writing, however, words like those bracketed may be left out because the listener's or reader's thought can instantly supply them:

No [I cannot come].

What [is the] next [thing to do]?

No admittance [is allowed].

Here is the spool [that] I want.

She can swim as fast as you [can].

This is important if [it is] true.

[Give me] A pound of sugar and a quarter's worth of lard.

should be avoided both in ordinary writing and in ordinary speech.]

BETTER: Your letter arrived today. I will write soon.

NOTE.—Do not use a verb, conjunction, preposition, or noun in a double capacity when one of the uses is ungrammatical.

WRONG [*verb*]: He always has and will do it.

RIGHT: He always has done it, and always will do it.

WRONG [*preposition*]: Nora was fond and diligent in work.

RIGHT: Nora was fond of work and diligent in it.

WRONG [*conjunction*]: Jenkins was as old, if not older, than any other man in the community.

RIGHT: Jenkins was as old as any other man in the community, if not older.

WRONG [*noun*]: He is one of the most skillful, if not the most skillful, tennis players in the state.

RIGHT: He is one of the most skillful tennis players in the state, if not the most skillful. [Double capacity is especially awkward when, as in the preceding examples, the first element is suspended while the second is being introduced. If the first element is completed before the second is mentioned, an omission from the second can often be supplied by the reader. Thus in the right form of the last example it is unnecessary to add *player*.]

EXERCISE

1. We shall cross one of the widest, if not the widest, river in Canada.
2. Sandy likes to drive on roads which wind through back country and see what's off the highway.
3. She glanced at the watch which he removed but kept silent.
4. Niagara Falls is popular with those who enjoy unusual sights and particularly newlyweds.

5. Had soda and sandwich lunch and returned work in half hour.

IDEAS UNDEVELOPED

1. Do not puzzle your reader with a half-expressed idea.
Place the complete meaning before him.¹

INCOMPLETE: At matinees it is always the children.

BETTER: At matinees most of the audience are children. [Or] At matinees children are the ones who make noise.

INCOMPLETE: When Keats died, Byron said it was the critics.

BETTER: When Keats died, Byron said it was the critics who had killed him.

FAULTY: Oil caused the motor to backfire.

RIGHT: An excess of oil caused the motor to backfire.

INCOMPLETE: Television will be as important an invention as the airplane in man's drama. [What sort of drama? Is the idea worth developing?]

THE HALF-EXPRESSED IDEA OMITTED: Television will be as important an invention as the airplane.

EXERCISE

1. In recent years scientists have made great advance in tuberculosis.
2. Coal is the way Saunders made his money.
3. What this town needs is sewage rather than a super-highway.
4. After its bill had passed, the Reform Club held no grudge against the senators.
5. We all enjoy a snow storm, but it's the slush after the snow melts.

¹ § 2 deals broadly with omission; §§ 3-8 deal with special types of omission.

INCOMPLETE CONSTRUCTIONS

4. Do not fail to carry through a construction which you have begun.

INCOMPLETE: The typist was a girl such as, fresh from school, knowing the theory of office practice, but lacking experience.

RIGHT: The typist was a girl [*or was like a girl*] fresh from school, knowing the theory of office practice, but lacking experience.

INCOMPLETE: A few minutes later, after the rain had stopped. [The introduction of *after* makes the whole clause dependent.]

RIGHT: A few minutes later the rain had stopped. [*Or*] A few minutes later, after the rain had stopped, the sun came out. [*Or*] The sun came out a few minutes after the rain had stopped

INCOMPLETE: We shall buy one of those new trailers. [*Those* suggests a class of trailers about which we expect to be told, but the information is not given.]

BETTER: We shall buy one of those new trailers that are air-conditioned. [If, however, there is no intention of referring to a class, the following is correct: We bought a new trailer.]

NOTE.—If intensives are called for, use true ones—words like *much*, *very*, and *exceedingly* which are complete in meaning. Words like *too*, *so*, and *such* are false intensives; they must be completed by an outside element of thought, usually a result clause introduced by *that*.

FAULTY: Isn't her hat just too stylish? We were so tired. It was such a steep climb. [Such faults are less noticeable in spoken language than in written; vocal emphasis helps conceal them.]

RIGHT: Isn't her hat stylish? We were tired out. It was a steep climb.

ALSO RIGHT: Isn't her hat too stylish to be in style long? We were

COMPLETENESS OF THOUGHT

3

so tired we had to stop. It was such a steep climb that only two of us made it.

EXERCISE

1. Mary wants one of those recorders for Christmas.
2. Williamsburg is such an interesting city.
3. Grandmother says that in her native town in Sweden, where lace was manufactured.
4. Then at the end when he is willing to take her back.
5. Even though laws are passed by the hundred, every citizen being expected to know them, for ignorance of the law is no excuse.

UNCOMPLETED COMPARISONS

5. In making a comparison, name the elements that you are matching.

COMPARISON MERELY HINTED: These flowers grow more rapidly in sand. [The second element is doubtful.]

COMPARISON STATED: These flowers grow more rapidly in sand than in clay. [Or] These flowers grow more rapidly than those do in sand.

STANDARD OF COMPARISON OMITTED: "Heads Up" is the best movie. [If no comparison is intended, this is a false superlative, resembling a false intensive (see § 4 Note).]

STANDARD GIVEN: "Heads Up" is the best movie in town. [Or] "Heads Up" is an excellent movie.

EXERCISE

1. A Diesel engine will operate with greater economy.
2. Strachey is known for his more subtle use of unflattering details.
3. It was the hardest fall.

4. This mistake is just as natural.
5. Histories give less space now to military affairs.

ILLOGICAL COMPARISONS

6. In making a comparison, be sure to match the right elements. Do not carelessly compare one thing with a mere part or quality of another thing.

WRONG: His speed was equal to a racehorse. [*Speed* is being compared with *racehorse*.]

RIGHT: His speed was equal to that of a racehorse. [*Speed* is being compared with *speed*—referred to by *that*.]

WRONG: A child's foolish fears are on a plane with a savage.

RIGHT: A child's foolish fears are on a plane with a savage's.
[The possessive *savage's* is elliptical, meaning *savage's fears*.]

WRONG: Like all pioneers, Benton's work is neglected.

RIGHT: Like *that of* all pioneers, Benton's work is neglected.

AMBIGUOUS: Habit grips a person in much the same way as an octopus. [As habit grips an octopus?]

BETTER: Habit grips a person in much the same way as an octopus does. [The comparison is now definite.]

NOTE.—In matching one member of a group or class against the remainder of that class, or against the class as a whole, show the relationship. After a comparative form, the reference must be to any *other* member of the class; after a superlative, to *all* the members of the class (not just to any other member or to the remainder of the class).

WRONG: { Chicago is larger than any city in Illinois.
 { Chicago is the largest of any other city in Illinois.

RIGHT: { Chicago is larger than any other city in Illinois. [Comparative]
 { Chicago is the largest of all the cities in Illinois. [Or]
 { Chicago is the largest city in Illinois. [Superlative]

Do not, by omitting *other*, imply a false contrast.

RIGHT: He raises lemons, oranges, and other citrus fruit.

EXERCISE

1. The plot of the story is much like Poe's "Gold Bug."
2. In no city are there so many theaters as in New York.
3. I respect you more than John.
4. The first human skills are inferior to a monkey.
5. Ours will have the longest span of any other bridge in America.

ILLOGICAL MATCHING OF OTHER ELEMENTS

7. Do not omit a word or phrase which is needed in the sentence to bring out the relationship of ideas.

WRONG: The little boy lacks companionship, especially children his own age. [Human beings (*children*) are matched with an abstract quality (*companionship*).]

RIGHT: The little boy lacks companionship, especially *that of* children his own age. [Or] The little boy lacks *companions*, especially children of his own age.

WRONG: His promotion was rapid, and soon he attained a vice-president.

RIGHT: His promotion was rapid, and soon he attained the position of vice-president. [Or] His promotion was rapid, and soon he attained a vice-presidency.

WRONG: At the head of the subscription list is a well-known name. He gave fifty dollars.

RIGHT: At the head of the subscription list is a well-known name. Its owner gave fifty dollars. [Or] At the head of the subscription list is the name of a well-known person. He gave fifty dollars.

WRONG: Samuel Clemens, the real name of Mark Twain, spent several years as a steamboat pilot.

RIGHT: Samuel Clemens, whose pen name was Mark Twain, spent several years as a steamboat pilot.

NOTE.—In giving information about books, do not confuse the title with the contents or some part of the contents.

WRONG: *Arrowsmith* deals with the difficulty of making medicine a science. He is a young doctor.

RIGHT: *Arrowsmith* deals with the difficulty of making medicine a science. The hero, Arrowsmith, is a young doctor.

EXERCISE

1. Jane is quick to see faults—not her own, of course, but somebody else.
2. The first test to be made is the carburetor.
3. Goodrich was appointed chairman, which he was glad to accept.
4. You will presently hear a familiar voice. He is approaching the speaker's stand.
5. Footprints, particularly a fox, could be seen in the snow.

TRANSITIONS NOT SUPPLIED

8. In passing from one thought to another, make the connection clear. If necessary, insert a word, a phrase, or even a sentence, to carry the reader safely across.

CAUSE TRANSITION NEEDED: The Romans built splendid roads. They wished to maintain their empire.

BETTER: The Romans built splendid roads, *because they needed means of moving troops quickly* to maintain their empire.

COMPLETENESS OF THOUGHT

8

CAUSE TRANSITION NEEDED: As you were given a chance to defend yourself, we conclude that you are guilty.

BETTER: As you were given a chance to defend yourself and *failed to avail yourself of it*, we conclude that you are guilty.

SPACE TRANSITION NEEDED: We were surprised to see a house in the distance, but we went to the door and knocked.

BETTER: We were surprised to see a house in the distance, but *we hastened toward it, opened the garden gate*, went up to the door, and knocked.

GENERAL-TO-PARTICULAR TRANSITION NEEDED: In memory a long experience may seem short. I went out to my uncle's farm.

BETTER: In memory a long experience may seem short. *This truth is borne out by something that happened to me last July* on my uncle's farm.

APPARENT CONTRADICTION TO BE BRIDGED: A penguin cannot fly. Like other birds it has wings.

BETTER: A penguin cannot fly, *although*, like other birds, it has wings.

DISTURBING ELEMENT TO BE REMOVED: Leather for binding books has always been imported from England and France. *It has been handled by New York importers.* Now America is starting to produce its own high grade leather. [Omit the italicized sentence here. It may be introduced later.]

NOTE.—The simplest means of securing smooth transitions is by a liberal use of connectives: *however, on the other hand, equally important, another interesting problem is, for this reason, the remedy for this, so much for, it remains to be said, of course I admit, finally.* (For a longer list see § 38.) Such phrases are useful not only in linking sentences, but also in joining one paragraph to another. They are almost always necessary when there is a turn, a reversal, or a repetition of thought.

EXERCISE

1. He lives in Nevada. His novels have a New England setting.
2. Inasmuch as Henry saw the accident, I believe that he is withholding information.
3. Selling magazines is supposed to be a way of getting to college. Last year I took a job with the Zenith News Company.
4. Deer hunters wear special coats. They want to avoid being shot.
5. On our trip through the dry cleaning plant we saw a centrifuge. This one was made by the Consolidated Tool Company of Cleveland, Ohio. Such a machine has many uses.

9.

REVIEW OF COMPLETENESS
OF THOUGHT

A. FRAGMENTS MISUSED AS SENTENCES

Rewrite the following statements, letting no element stand to itself unless it expresses a complete thought.

1. We all joined in the chorus. Singing lustily.
2. No rain fell. Although the sky was dark.
3. The bus goes on to Chicago. Which is the end of its run.
4. A camper should know how to build a fire. And how to open cans.
5. Lucy smiled. A smile of satisfaction.
6. He sat on the bench. Which had just been painted.
7. I have brought you a present. A plaid tie.
8. This machine is used for mowing the crop. Separating the grain. And binding the straw.
9. Meet my friend Helen. Who used to live in Cleveland.
10. The gypsy prophesied that I would go on a journey. That I would suffer. That I would get rich.

COMPLETENESS OF THOUGHT

9

11. Most golfers carry only two wooden clubs. A driver and a brassie.
12. We shall study the sixth chapter tomorrow. The first five having already been mastered.
13. The laboratory is for technical men. Such as pathologists and bacteriologists.
14. On a holiday the doctor likes to sleep late. To putter in the garden. To read his magazines.
15. Jack London's novels have had wide appeal. One reason being that they are full of adventure.
16. An experienced fisherman holds his rod lightly. So that he may feel every nibble.
17. The driver was given a ticket. Not only because he was speeding, but also because he crossed a double line.
18. There are two kinds of Swiss cheese: first, the imported kind. And second, the domestic.
19. Ordinary flour has been bleached. Whereas our kind hasn't.
20. We were dog-tired. Having spent the afternoon at the fair.

B. NECESSARY WORDS OMITTED, IDEAS UNDEVELOPED, AND CONSTRUCTIONS NOT COMPLETED

Supply any words necessary to the meaning. State ideas in full. See that constructions are completed.

1. Frogs catch insects during the day and toads at night.
2. We crossed one of those drawbridges.
3. The tariff commission disagreed about silk.
4. Little Margaret has learned to talk as quickly, if not more quickly, than her brother.
5. Charles was one of those tyrants such as, having too much pride and ambition, and thoroughly unscrupulous.
6. There have been complaints about the coffee serving.
7. The history of the early colonies is divided into the age of discovery and settlement.

8. Our new dog runs so fast.
9. Raising his voice whenever he gets angry.
10. A nurse should know something about sick food.
11. One of those miniature pianos would fit under the window.
12. I enjoy sleeping outdoors, but it's the mosquitoes.
13. It always has and will be his custom to get up at dawn.
14. Maxwell is one of the best known, if not the best known, builders in the county.
15. Unicorns were a medieval superstition.

C. UNCOMPLETED AND ILLOGICAL COMPARISONS

Supply the words needed to name the elements being compared. Bring the right elements into relation.

1. Although he inherited a fortune, he is just as natural.
2. In some classes less time is given to spelling.
3. Virginia is closer to her mother than her sister.
4. The references to mythology make the poetry of Crane more difficult than Sandburg.
5. Our clock is the smallest of any other clock in the exhibition.
6. Natural sunlight may not be better for schoolrooms and factories.
7. In Yellowstone Park Henry caught a trout bigger than any trout taken there.
8. She gave him no more attention than a fly.
9. No state has the area of Texas.
10. This youngster's intelligence is on a plane with an adult.
11. St. Augustine is much older than any city in Florida.
12. This is more of a summer resort.
13. He can kill you as easily as a tiger.
14. I regret the loss of the wallet more than the money.
15. The way she walks is similar to a marionette.

**D. ILLOGICAL MATCHING OF OTHER
ELEMENTS, AND TRANSITIONS
NOT SUPPLIED**

Supply the words needed to bring the right ideas into relation. Where a smooth transition between statements is lacking, supply it.

1. The boat was named "The Seabird" and a sloop.
2. A childhood home will always seem large. When I was a boy, I lived on Pine Street.
3. In *Abe Lincoln in Illinois* he is treated sympathetically.
4. A sportsman enjoys competition, especially his close rivals.
5. Some knowledge of chemistry is useful to the housewife. We were spending a fortune on soap.
6. On the hotel register is a famous Hollywood signature. She is going to stop here until Monday.
7. The Metropolitan contains a room of English paintings, including Reynolds.
8. Birds build nests out of twigs and grass. They will use string and other man-made materials.
9. The last arrest the sheriff attempted was Billy the Kid.
10. As a psychological study, Willa Cather stresses the reverie of one character.
11. Geography, the United States in particular, is his main interest.
12. From the hill we caught sight of a ranch at the other end of the valley. We entered the barn and looked over the cattle.
13. The contract had been burned and was ruining his chances to collect.
14. The highest bid was a little old lady.
15. Novelists often build stories around events that have really happened. Hawthorne's *Scarlet Letter* is well known.

UNITY OF THOUGHT

Unity means oneness. A sentence should contain one thought.¹ It may contain two or more statements only when these are closely related parts of a larger thought or impression. A writer should make certain, first, that his thought has unity; and second, that this unity will be obvious to the reader.

RUN-TOGETHER SENTENCES

10. Do not run two or more sentences together with a comma or no mark at all between them.

WRONG:	{	<p>He wants to improve, he is not content with what he already can do. [Two complete statements have been spliced with a comma. This mistake is called the <i>comma splice</i> or <i>comma fault</i>.²]</p> <p>He wants to improve he is not content with what he already can do. [Two complete statements have been telescoped.]</p>
--------	---	--

RIGHT: He wants to improve. He is not content with what he already can do. [The grammatical independence of the two complete statements is shown by the punctuation.]

WRONG: The pledge entered the darkened room there a surprise awaited him.

RIGHT: The pledge entered the darkened room. There a surprise awaited him.

¹ When a fragment (see § 1) is tested by this principle, it will be found wanting in oneness, not because it contains too much, but because it contains too little.

² The mistake is made oftenest when the second of two independent statements begins with a word like *he, they, it, this, then, there, or thus*.

UNITY OF THOUGHT

10

WRONG: History does not repeat itself exactly, the future is ever uncertain.

RIGHT: History does not repeat itself exactly. The future is ever uncertain.

NOTE.—The surest way of correcting this rudimentary error of run-together sentences is to separate the fused statements by means of a period (unless a question mark or an exclamation point is required) and a capital, as was done in the preceding examples. A writer whose sentence sense is weak should use this method exclusively. But a writer whose recognition of an independent statement is sure will sometimes find it well to place two (or even more) statements in one sentence. There are three ways of doing this grammatically: (*a*) the first is to use a comma and a conjunction, (*b*) the second is to use a semicolon, and (*c*) the third is to reduce one of the statements to a phrase or a subordinate clause.

(*a*) The winters are long and cold, and nothing can live without shelter.

(*b*) The winters are long and cold; nothing can live without shelter.

(*c*) During [*or In or On account of*] the long and cold winters nothing can live without shelter. [The first statement is reduced to a phrase.]

Because [*or Since*] the winters are long and cold nothing can live without shelter. [The first statement is reduced to a dependent clause.]

The winters are so long and cold that nothing can live without shelter. [The second statement is reduced to a dependent clause.]

EXCEPTION TO RULE 10.—Three or more (always three or more—never two) short coordinate clauses which are par-

allel in structure and leave a unified impression may be joined by commas, even though no conjunction is used.

All was excitement. The ducks quacked, the pigs squealed, the dogs barked. [The general idea *excitement* gives the three clauses a certain unity. Semicolons, however, would be equally correct.]

EXERCISE

1. Ladybugs are useful to us they kill parasites.
2. The plane takes off, the pilot waves.
3. Franklin started as an apprentice, then he bought a print shop of his own.
4. I listened to the broadcast, however there was nothing new.
5. Hats off here comes the flag.

UNRELATED IDEAS

- 11. Do not combine ideas which have no obvious relation. Do not combine ideas which are related if each is important enough to form a sentence by itself.**

IDEAS HAVING NO OBVIOUS CONNECTION: Charles Huxley was born on a ship crossing the Atlantic, and his parents died when he was only seven.

RIGHT AS TWO SENTENCES: Charles Huxley was born on a ship crossing the Atlantic. His parents died when he was only seven.

WRONG: The Spartans did not care for literature and lived in the southern part of Greece.

RIGHT: The Spartans lived in the southern part of Greece. They did not care for literature.

WRONG: The microphones are concealed, and the broadcast is carried by all the major networks.

UNITY OF THOUGHT

11

RIGHT: The microphones are concealed. The broadcast is carried by all the major networks.

IDEAS IMPORTANT ENOUGH TO FORM SEPARATE SENTENCES: We lived in Santa Fé for ten years; then my father died, so we moved to El Paso, Texas. [There are three ideas: (1) ten years elapse; (2) a man dies; (3) a family moves. These ideas are related, but at least two of them are important enough to form separate sentences.]

RIGHT [emphasizing ideas 2 and 3]: After we had lived in Santa Fé for ten years my father died. We then moved to El Paso, Texas.

RIGHT [emphasizing ideas 1 and 3]: We lived in Santa Fé for ten years. Upon the death of my father the family moved to El Paso, Texas.

NOTE.—The thought of one sentence should not be allowed to run over into a second sentence which introduces a new idea. Either keep the detached part of the thought in the first sentence, or embody it in a separate sentence.

WRONG: Mr. Jeffries plays the piano. He also plays the violin, and he composes very well.

RIGHT: Mr. Jeffries plays the piano and the violin. He also composes very well.

EXERCISE

1. Venetian blinds are a great convenience, and you can obtain them in any color.
2. An architect must be an artist as well as an engineer. He must be a business man besides, and of course he must have patience.
3. Wild rice grows in Minnesota and has a distinctive flavor.
4. This knife may be used for peeling potatoes. It is also suitable for coring apples and has a stainless steel blade.

5. He spent twenty years in China as a missionary; then the war closed his station, and six months later he became a student at the University of Chicago.

RELATIONSHIP OF IDEAS TO BE SHOWN

12. If the ideas in a sentence belong together, show what the exact relationship is.

NO OBVIOUS CONNECTION: She wore rags and was very rich.

EXPRESSING A CONTRAST: Although she wore rags, she was very rich.

NO OBVIOUS CONNECTION: There is a legend that King Alfred let some cakes burn, and he is important for having started English literary prose.

BETTER: King Alfred is remembered in a legend for having let some cakes burn, but he is important for having started English literary prose.

FAULTY: My camera is easy to operate and requires thirty-five millimeter film. [Ease of operation and size of film may be related, but how?]

BETTER: My camera is easy to operate, and the thirty-five millimeter film for it costs little. [Two equal points.]

EXERCISE

1. His ability to see things at a distance is above average, and he needs glasses.
2. For a long time the valley was unsettled, and then it was again desolate.
3. Test the patch and submerge the inflated tube in water.
4. The woods were full of quail, but we had our rifles with us.
5. To identify his clothes, the cadet should mark them with ink, for indelible ink stains.

- UNNECESSARY IDEAS OR DETAILS

13. Do not clutter a sentence with too many details; distribute the details over several sentences or omit them.

OVERBURDENED: In 1836, in Baltimore, Poe married Virginia Clemm, his cousin, who was hardly more than a child, being fourteen years old, while Poe himself was twenty-eight, and to her Poe wrote much of his best verse.

BETTER: In 1836 Poe married Virginia Clemm. Poe was then twenty-eight, and Virginia was only fourteen. To this girl Poe wrote much of his best verse.

FAULTY: In the yard outside my window there is an enormous pine tree, and last night, just as I had finished some candy and a murder mystery and was about to fall asleep, the pine tree began to talk in whispers.

BETTER: Outside my window there is an enormous pine tree. Last night just as I had finished a murder mystery and was about to fall asleep, the tree began to talk in whispers.

UNNECESSARY DETAILS IN LONGER PASSAGE: The architect brought his sketch. It showed a front and a side elevation and contained suggestions for landscaping, *and these last were in water colors that had been applied expertly, the greens looking like fresh lettuce, the yellows like corn. The swimming pool was sky blue.* On the ground floor there were to be four rooms: a living room, with a *wood-burning* fireplace; a dining room; a kitchen, *with three doors*; and a maid's room, *which was to face the garage.* The dining room was to be sunken. On the second floor . . . [The italicized words are unnecessary here. The next to last sentence obstructs the transition to the facts about the second floor. The dining room should have been described at once as sunken.]

EXERCISE

1. Vitamins are essential to health, and certain foods are particularly rich in Vitamin D, certain others in Vitamin B₁, and others in Vitamin C, orange juice being a good source of the C.
2. A picnic will be held on Wednesday, July 11, at the Hillside Country Club by the Ladies Auxiliary of the Knights of Zeus, a newly founded organization which is not to be confused with the Ladies Auxiliary of the Knights of Jupiter.
3. One afternoon, wanting to write a theme about nylon and being short of facts, Anne went to the library, where she looked in the card catalogue for two minutes, and then, after drinking some water, she went up to the librarian and asked for help.
4. When I lived in the city, I used to walk a great deal, and on one of my walks in the early morning I came upon a house which had a brass plate on it, so I read the inscription, which said: "George Washington slept here."
5. The Indians employed many kinds of shelter, including caves, where they were endangered by falling earth and rock, shelters on stilts above lakes, tepees of redwood, wigwams, often decorated with painted hides and being the kind usually described in story books, and adobe apartments which had ladders for reaching the roofs.

CHOPPY SENTENCES TO BE
COMBINED

14. Do not use two or three sentences to express ideas which will make a more unified impression in one sentence. Place subordinate ideas in subordinate constructions.

EXCESSIVE PREDICATION: Excavating is the first operation in street paving. The excavating is usually done by a steam shovel. The shovel scoops up the dirt and loads it directly into wagons.

RIGHT: Excavating, the first operation in street paving, is usually done by a shovel which loads the dirt directly into wagons.

MONOTONOUS: The doe is wading along the shore. She is nibbling the lily pads as she goes. Now she moves slowly around the point. She has a little spotted fawn with her. The fawn frolics along at the heels of his mother.

BETTER: Wading along the shore, the doe nibbles the lily pads by the way, and moves slowly around the point. A spotted fawn frolics at her heels.

PRIMER STYLE: Rooms are marked on the floor. These rooms are about fourteen feet square.

BETTER: The floor is marked off into rooms about fourteen feet square.

NOTE.—An occasional short sentence is permissible, even desirable. Successive short sentences may be used to express rapid action, or emphatic assertion, or deliberate simplicity. Otherwise, avoid them.

EXERCISE

1. Beethoven wrote nine symphonies. The fifth is the most often played. The other eight also rank high.
2. Our bulldog will carry his own meat home. He will not try to tear the package.
3. Once all the oceans were crossed by clipper ships. They were faster than other boats.
4. The tide was coming in. Waves were breaking over the rocks. The surf crept up the beach. It seethed closer to the boardwalk. The air smelled good.
5. Blimps and Zeppelins are dirigibles. These are lighter than air. They can stay up with motors silent. Airplanes are heavier than air. They cannot.

**AND OR SO SENTENCES TO BE
CURED BY DIVISION**

- 15. Avoid stringy compound sentences.** The crude, rambling style which results from their use may be corrected by separating the material into shorter sentences.

FAULTY: I went to the cafeteria for lunch, and, after deliberating, I chose some chicken soup and a vegetable plate and a dish of chocolate ice cream, and then I found I had only ten cents in my pocketbook.

RIGHT: I went to the cafeteria for lunch. After deliberating, I chose some chicken soup, a vegetable plate, and a dish of chocolate ice cream. Then I found I had only ten cents in my pocketbook.

FAULTY: There are many stops on the organ which control the tones of the different pipes and one has to learn how and when to use these and this takes time and practice.

RIGHT: On the organ are many stops which control the tones of the different pipes. To learn how and when to use these takes time and practice.

FAULTY: Reynard wished to catch Chanticleer, so he flattered the cock and got him to sing with his eyes shut and seized him, so there the story might have ended, but Chanticleer persuaded his captor to brag, and the fox opened his mouth, and so Chanticleer escaped.

RIGHT: Reynard wished to catch Chanticleer. He flattered the cock into singing with his eyes shut and then seized him. There the story might have ended, but Chanticleer persuaded his captor to brag. The fox opened his mouth and Chanticleer escaped.

EXERCISE

1. Mount Whitney is the highest peak in the Sierras, and it was named by Clarence King, and he was the first to try to

scale it, but he was confused by storm clouds and climbed Mount Langley by mistake.

2. This spring my neighbor spaded up his garden again, and he mixed in a sack of fertilizer and planted some seeds he got from Philadelphia, and in a few weeks he hopes to have plenty of fresh vegetables.
3. I put a pillow on my chair and ate supper that way, and once my father asked me why I was so far from the table, but the telephone rang, so he was called back to the office.
4. Ballads have a long history, and many theories about their origin have been advanced, but nobody can be absolutely sure of how they came into being, for no record has been preserved.
5. It is said that canned food may now be left in an opened can without danger, so some people leave it there, but our maid has had ptomaine poisoning, and so she doesn't take any chances.

AND SENTENCES TO BE CURED BY SUBORDINATION¹

In structure a sentence may be

- A. SIMPLE: The rain fell.
- B. COMPOUND: The rain continued, and the stream rose.
- C. COMPLEX: When the rain ceased, the flood came.

In B the clauses are of almost equal importance, and the first is coordinated with the second. In C the clauses are not of equal importance, and the first is subordinated

¹It has been pointed out (§ 10, Note) that the error of running statements together may be corrected by subordinating one statement to the other. The same remedy will sometimes serve to clarify an ambiguous relationship between ideas (§ 12) or to combine choppy sentences (§ 14). In fact, subordination is so important that it is also treated in §§ 16, 17, and 18, and recurs elsewhere in this book.

to the second. *And* is a coordinating conjunction. *When* is a subordinating conjunction. For further analysis of coordinating and subordinating connectives see § 37.

- 16. Do not use coordination when subordination will secure a more clear and emphatic unit of thought.** Especially do not coordinate a main idea with an explanatory detail. Place minor ideas in subordinate clauses and still less important ideas in participial or prepositional phrases; omit trivial details altogether.

CHILDISH: I went down town and saw a crowd standing in the street, and wanted to know what was the matter, and so I went up and asked a man.

RIGHT: When I went down town I saw a crowd standing in the street, and since I wanted to know what was the matter I asked a man. [Two clauses are subordinated by the use of *when* and *since*. This change abolishes two *ands*. The words *went up and* are struck out. One *and* remains, and deserves to remain, for it joins two ideas which are truly coordinate.]

MAIN IDEA NOT EMPHASIZED: I talked with an old man and his name was Ned.

BETTER: I talked with an old man named Ned. [A participial phrase replaces a clause. The name is now subordinated.]

MAIN IDEA NOT EMPHASIZED: Developing is the next step in preparing the film, and it is very important.

BETTER: Developing, the next step in preparing the film, is very important. [An appositional phrase replaces the first predicate.]

MAIN IDEA NOT EMPHASIZED: They began their perilous journey, and they had four horses.

RIGHT [emphasizing *perilous journey*]: With four horses they began their perilous journey. [A prepositional phrase replaces a clause.]

RIGHT [emphasizing *having the horses*]: When they began their perilous journey they had four horses. [A subordinate clause replaces a main clause.]

UNITY OF THOUGHT

17

CAPABLE OF GREATER UNITY: The frog is a stupid animal, and may be caught with a hook baited with red flannel. [Is the writer trying to tell us *how to catch frogs* or merely that *frogs are stupid*? Coordination makes the two ideas appear equally important.]

RIGHT [emphasizing *frogs are stupid*]: The fact that the frog can be caught with a hook baited with red flannel proves his stupidity.

RIGHT [emphasizing *how to catch frogs*]: The frog, being stupid, will bite a piece of red flannel.

EXERCISE

1. She likes to dance, and she has a good time.
2. Latimer was found murdered, and the bullet had entered his chest.
3. Another material is bakelite, and it is a synthetic resin.
4. John Singer Sargent was a well known American painter, and he did a mural for the Boston Public Library.
5. Ethyl chloride is highly volatile, and it can be used to deaden pain.

SUBORDINATION THWARTED BY AND WHICH, OR AND WITH PHRASES

17. Do not attach a relative clause to a main clause or a phrase to a main clause by and or but. Use *and which* (or *but which*), and *who* (or *but who*) only between relative clauses similar in form.¹ The presence of *and* or *but* thwarts subordination.²

¹ As a general rule, do not use *and which* unless you have already used *which* in the sentence. An exception must be made, however, for sentences like the following: "He told me what countries he had visited, and which ones he liked most."

² An exception must be made wherever a second stage of thought is

WRONG: This is an important problem, and which we shall not find easy to solve.

RIGHT: This is an important problem, which we shall not find easy to solve. [Or] This problem is one *which* is important *and which* we cannot easily solve.

WRONG: Their chief opponent was Winter, a shrewd politician, but who is now less popular than he was.

RIGHT: Their chief opponent was Winter, a shrewd politician, now less popular [or who is now less popular] than he was.

WRONG: Major went to bed, and leaving the work unfinished.

RIGHT: Major went to bed, leaving the work unfinished.

WRONG: He ran home and with coat tails flying.

RIGHT: He ran home with coat tails flying.

EXERCISE

1. The radio was a table model, and which could be operated by remote control.
2. An ancient aqueduct crosses the plain, and bringing water to the city.
3. The actor in the role of King Lear, and who also plays Polonius, reads blank verse admirably.
4. My roommate borrowed my skates, and without permission.
5. There is satire in *Gulliver's Travels*, but which the young reader does not notice.

UPSIDE-DOWN SUBORDINATION

18. Do not put the principal statement of a sentence in a subordinate clause or phrase (see § 42).

FAULTY: Our clothes began to feel damp from the fog when we decided to build a fire.

understood: "Joyce, however, stepped forward, and without a trace of fear." [The full sentence would be: "Joyce, however, stepped forward, and he did so without a trace of fear."]

UNITY OF THOUGHT

19

RIGHT: When our clothes began to feel damp from the fog we decided to build a fire.

FAULTY: Longstreet received orders to attack the Federal right wing, which he did immediately.

RIGHT: As soon as Longstreet received orders he attacked the Federal right wing.

FAULTY: I suspected that it would rain, although I did not take an umbrella.

RIGHT: Although I suspected that it would rain, I did not take an umbrella.

EXERCISE

1. Although his parachute did not open, he tried to save himself.
2. The golf ball rolled around the cup, finally dropping.
3. This check was written on Sunday, a fact which is of no consequence.
4. The tread is almost gone, with the result that the car skids easily.
5. I was gazing out the window, when the idea came to me.

19. REVIEW OF UNITY OF THOUGHT

A. RUN-TOGETHER SENTENCES

Rewrite the following material in sentences each of which is a unit of thought. Most of the sentences should be summarily cut apart. If you decide that others taken together have unity of thought, combine them (1) by a comma plus a conjunction, (2) by a semicolon, or (3) by reducing one of the sentences to a phrase or a subordinate clause.

1. Anyone can raise zinnias they require little care.
2. Ted went to the garage, there he was building a ship model.

3. How is your appetite, are you hungry?
4. The desk was neat it looked unused.
5. He is a shark at algebra, in fact, he got an A plus.
6. Have you a screw driver this screw is loose?
7. The Pilgrims landed, then they knelt in prayer.
8. I shall be at home tomorrow can you come.
9. "Sit down," he said, "you are rocking the boat."
10. The boy brought back some tadpoles, however, they did not live long.
11. We cut away the vines now they have grown back.
12. Eskimos build an igloo, this is a one-room house made of ice.
13. The birds begin to fly soon the rock is deserted.
14. Will it rain, what do you think?
15. The conductor leans from the rear platform of the car, he shouts, "All aboard!"
16. Raw milk is boiled, thus the germs are killed.
17. Last night the hockey team won, however, it was a close game.
18. He left for Kansas, that is all I know.
19. Boulder Dam is a federal project it supplies electricity at low cost.
20. What is insulin, Arthur takes it.

B. RUN-TOGETHER SENTENCES

Rewrite the following material in sentences each of which is a unit of thought. Most of the sentences should be summarily cut apart. If you decide that others taken together have unity of thought, combine them (1) by a comma plus a conjunction, (2) by a semicolon, or (3) by reducing one of the sentences to a phrase or a subordinate clause.

1. My brother went to Stanford, he majored in economics.
2. Pittsburgh is located at the junction of two rivers it is a steel town.

3. A costume play will be given by the drama students, this is an annual event.
4. Fluorescent lights burn but little electricity thus they are cheaper to use than incandescent ones.
5. Our names are the same are we related.
6. Charles Lamb could not carry a tune at least he said he couldn't.
7. Parking will not be allowed on Eighth Street that is a new ruling.
8. The hammer clicked, the gun did not go off.
9. Rip Van Winkle woke up where was he?
10. Robert has grown a moustache, how John envies him.
11. On Saturday the store will be crowded, there's to be a sale.
12. Fig trees were planted, since they did not bear figs they had to be uprooted.
13. Although glass blocks admit plenty of light they are not transparent, therefore they make good building material.
14. Lake Hubbard is a shallow lake, thus the water is quickly warmed by the sun, but no one swims there because of the million weeds.
15. A cat will always be his own master he will seek affection but he won't accept it unless he is in the mood.

C. ONE THOUGHT IN A SENTENCE .

By dividing, subordinating, or logically combining the following statements, secure unity of thought.

1. The house is on Willard Avenue, and there are thirteen windows in it.
2. My automobile is a blue sedan with green fenders. The upholstery is gray, and the motor has seventy-five horsepower.
3. Coffee is raised in Guatemala, and the folk music makes you want to dance.
4. Leonard, carrying a new brief case, which he had bought in

Toledo, got off the elevator and entered the office of the Richards Company, where he had a job in the advertising department.

5. The Indians live on a reservation, but they make jewelry and baskets.
6. Try the temperature of the water and splash a few drops on your wrist.
7. In 1912 Kelly opened a store on Front Street, and five years later he moved to a larger building on Broadway; later he added a suburban branch which did not succeed at first.
8. Bryant was born in 1794, and he wrote "Thanatopsis."
9. The mill is run by water power, and the level of the water is carefully gauged.
10. He is critical of conventions, and he wears a tie.
11. The outdoor swimming pool was sixty feet long. It was twelve feet deep at one end and three feet at the other, and with white stripes painted on the bottom.
12. Our neighbors are very friendly, and they raise tomatoes.
13. Earth worms loosen up the soil, and some gardeners keep a breeding ground for them.
14. Bryan, who lived in Nebraska and later prosecuted Scopes in the "evolution trial," became a national figure in 1896, when he made his "cross of gold" speech and for the first time became the Democratic candidate for president.
15. Pasadena, in which the California Institute of Technology is located, has a rose parade.

D. EXCESSIVE PREDICATION

Reduce the number of independent statements by re-writing the following sentences. Do not crowd too many ideas together. Stringy sentences are worse than choppy sentences.

1. I subscribe to a magazine. Few newsstands carry it.
2. Two materials are necessary. They are sand and lime.

3. At the beginning of the book a foreword may appear. This will be brief.
4. Mexican foods are hot. The Mexicans use a great deal of pepper.
5. In the school band there are two tuba players. There is also a xylophonist.
6. Grandfather had a silver watch. It was thick and heavy. He wound it with a key.
7. My idea of heaven is a yacht. I have never been on one. Maybe that is why.
8. First, you step on the accelerator. In this way you inject a little gas into the cylinders. Then you turn on the ignition.
9. In the garden there is a fountain. Near the fountain stands a bird bath. Across from that there's a sundial. All are made of marble.
10. She called the operator. She gave the number. It was hard to get a line through. After ten minutes of waiting she hung up.
11. George owns a tiny camera. In addition he owns a suitcase full of gadgets. These include a range finder, a photometer, lenses, and filters. There is also a tripod.
12. The sections of the book are sewed. The boards are put on. Leather is glued to the boards. The lettering and decorating follow.
13. The men in the family used to scorn vegetables. Now they eat all the old varieties. They eat the new ones too. They even ask for salads.
14. A dramatic monologue is like an excerpt from a play. One character talks. He speaks to at least one other character. Browning often used this technique.
15. Streamlined trains are made of aluminum. This cuts their weight down. The cars are fitted close together. This cuts down wind resistance.

E. EXCESSIVE COORDINATION

The following sentences either (a) string together loosely too many separate statements or (b) place subordinate matter in a coordinate relation with the main thought. Break up the sentences which should be broken up. Recast the others, placing the subordinate matter in a dependent clause, a phrase, or a modifying word.

1. Chickens are easily deceived, and they will lay eggs by artificial light.
2. Slang often starts as a chance remark; then it is repeated by everybody, and finally it is worn out.
3. Joseph Conrad was born in the Ukraine and lived as a child with his exiled parents in Russia, and afterward he became a sailor and fought a duel before he was twenty.
4. He is allergic to strawberries, and he ate some, and so he has a rash.
5. There were mice in the pantry, and we kept a tin box for our bread.
6. The ostrich is falsely accused, and he does not stick his head in the sand when he is afraid.
7. I wanted an electric razor, and my father gave me a tennis racket, but I did not say so.
8. The snow fell for nearly twenty-four hours, and so we had to dig out.
9. The news is about Brazil, and it is on the third page.
10. Magnolia blossoms are white and they have a delicate perfume, but, when picked, they do not last, so it is best not to pick them.
11. The soldiers did not have a great deal of physical strength, and it took ten days or two weeks for a slight cut or wound to heal.
12. Plywood panels are light in weight, and they are used as insulation.

13. Many drivers do not know how to make repairs, and they are at the mercy of garage men.
14. The baby cut some of the doll's hair off, and then she cut a little more, but the scissors were dull, and so she stopped.
15. As mass production increases, monopoly develops, and this has been true for fifty years, but what has been done about it?
16. We sat up front, but the pictures were blurred, so we moved back, and then we were able to enjoy the show.
17. At the class reunion a fund was raised, and it was for a scholarship.
18. Vienna was a cultural center, and it was known for its music.
19. Eucalyptus trees grow rapidly, and they are used for firewood, and they are aromatic and have medicinal properties, and also they are planted as windbreaks.
20. To prepare a linoleum block, reinforce the linoleum by gluing it to a piece of wood, and transfer the design to the linoleum by tracing or copying, as from a reflection in a mirror, and, finally, carve the design in sharp relief.

F. THWARTED AND UPSIDE-DOWN SUBORDINATION

In the following sentences (*a*) true subordination is thwarted by attaching a relative clause or a phrase to a main clause by *and* or *but*, or else (*b*) the important idea is buried in a subordinate clause or phrase. Link the relative clause or phrase properly. Put the main idea in the main clause, and if possible subordinate the rest of the sentence to it.

1. The name of Paderewski, the pianist, and who also was once premier of Poland, is famous.
2. He touched the hot potato, when he burned his fingers.
3. Chromium, a hard metal, and which resists corrosion, is used in various alloys.

4. *The Crock of Gold* is a delightful tale, and which many people have enjoyed.
5. California's votes went to Woodrow Wilson, who carried the election.
6. The left fielder, and who also plays shortstop, leads the batting order.
7. This stream can overflow its banks, and with terrifying speed.
8. Canada and the United States have a common border, but which is unfortified.
9. Evelyn ran out of the house, and forgetting the key.
10. The certificates are beautifully printed, although the stock is worthless.
11. He shot a sixty-seven, thus lowering the course record.
12. I did not touch the high-tension wire, which fact saved my life.
13. The ambassador made a suggestion, which was that all nations disarm completely.
14. I have a first cousin, but whom I have never met.
15. Two social critics were Ida Tarbell, who wrote about Standard Oil, and Lincoln Steffens, and who wrote about politics in the cities.

CLEARNESS OF THOUGHT

Clearness is fundamental. The writer should be content, not when his meaning may be understood, but only when his meaning cannot be misunderstood. He may attain this entire clearness by giving attention to five topics: Reference (§§ 20–21), Coherence (§§ 22–28), Parallel Structure (§§ 30–31), Consistency (§§ 32–35), Use of Connectives (§§ 36–38).

Reference

A pronoun is a word which takes the place of a noun. It must instantly connect itself in our thought with the right noun, and must not connect itself with the wrong one; that is, its reference to its antecedent must be clear.

PRONOUN WITHOUT ANTECEDENT

20. Give a pronoun a definite antecedent. Do not let a pronoun refer loosely to anything not named or to the general idea of a clause.

ANTECEDENT UNEXPRESSED: When the garden has been watered, it should be disconnected and put away. [The writer may have been thinking about the *hose*, but he did not name it.]

RIGHT: When the garden has been watered, the hose should be disconnected and put away.

ANTECEDENT UNEXPRESSED: I always liked engineers, and I have chosen that as my profession. [What is the profession? The sentence does not mention it.]

RIGHT: I always liked engineers, and I have decided to become one.

ANTECEDENT VAGUE: Street lamps used to be lighted by hand, which is no longer true

ABANDONING THE PRONOUN: Street lamps used to be lighted by hand, but they are not now. [*Or*] It is no longer true that street lamps are lighted by hand.

ANTECEDENT TOO BROAD AND INCLUSIVE: The cemetery is small but very old. This accounts for the weathering of the tombstones.

ANTECEDENT SUPPLIED: The cemetery is small but very old. This [*or* Its] age accounts for the weathering of the tombstones.

FAULTY: It says in our history that Columbus was an Italian.

RIGHT: Our history says that Columbus was an Italian.

NOTE.—An entire statement may be the antecedent of *this* if the reference is unmistakable: "Science and machinery were more and more employed. This was one of the marks of the nineteenth century."

Impersonal constructions must be used with caution. "It is raining" is correct, although *it* has no antecedent. We desire that the antecedent shall be vague, impersonal. But unnecessary use of the indefinite *it*, *you*, or *they* should be avoided.

EXERCISE

1. After you have inserted the film, close it, and turn the winding knob.
2. It says in the paper that it will snow tomorrow.
3. He sat at the library table with his book open and fell asleep, which was true of nobody else.
4. John Stuart Mill's father knew economics and wanted the boy to be one.
5. The way to win at Russian checkers is to lose all your men. This is not true of ordinary games.

PRONOUN WITH HALF-LOST
ANTECEDENT

21. Make a pronoun refer to its antecedent and to that alone.

Be sure that the antecedent is a word central in the reader's thought and that the position of the pronoun makes the reference unmistakable.

ANTECEDENT IN THE POSSESSIVE CASE: When a poor woman came to Jane Addams' famous Hull House she always gave help. [*Poor woman* and *Hull House* are the emphatic words, to which any pronoun used later is referred by the reader.]

RIGHT: When a poor woman came to Jane Addams' famous Hull House she always received help. [Or] When a poor woman came to Hull House Jane Addams always gave help.

ANTECEDENT IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: In biology, which is the study of plants and animals, we find that they are made up of unitary structures called cells. [Since the words *plants and animals* occur only in a parenthetical clause, the reader is surprised to find them used as an antecedent.]

RIGHT: In the study of biology we find that plants and animals are made up of unitary cells. [The best remedy is to recast the sentence.]

REMOTE REFERENCE OF *this*: My failure in mathematics was serious. My grades in English, history, and Latin were good enough. But this brought down my average. [*This? What this?* Five nouns intrude between the pronoun *this* and its proper antecedent *failure*.]

RIGHT: In English, history, and Latin I received fairly good grades. But in mathematics I received a failure. This brought down my average.

INTERCEPTED REFERENCE OF *which*: He dropped the bundle in the mud which he was carrying to his mother. [The reader for a moment refers the pronoun to the wrong noun. Bring *which* nearer to its proper antecedent *bundle*.]

RIGHT: He dropped in the mud the bundle which he was carrying to his mother.

INTERCEPTED REFERENCE OF *which* TO A CLAUSE: The hammer strikes the bell, which continues as long as the push button is pressed. [There are two errors. The writer intends *which* to refer to the entire preceding clause, and *bell* intercepts even that reference.]

ANTECEDENT SUPPLIED: The hammer strikes the bell, a process which continues as long as the push button is pressed. [Or, abandoning the pronoun] The hammer strikes the bell as long as the push button is pressed.

DIVIDED REFERENCE (*he*): John spoke to the stranger, and he was very surly.

RIGHT: John spoke to the stranger, who was very surly. [Or] John spoke in a surly manner to the stranger.

NOTE.—Ordinarily, do not refer to the title in the first line of a piece of writing. The reader expects you to assert something, and face forward, not to turn back to what you have said in the title.

FAULTY: { *Color Photography*
I am interested in this new development of science.
For a long time I . . .

RIGHT: { *Color Photography*
Taking pictures in color has long appealed to me as
an interesting . . .

EXERCISE

1. Mary likes her mother, and she is good to her.
2. He is wearing a new suit, which shows that he has plenty of money.
3. Frozen desserts can be made in the refrigerator that will be delicious.

4. After reading Thackeray's *Henry Esmond* I've decided that he's my favorite novelist.
5. In the law of public utilities, which has to do with businesses like selling electricity and hauling goods, we find them hard to define.
6. As the steamer approaches the tugboat, it blows a warning.
7. At the zoo cages are provided for bears which have no bars.
8. I went in Chad's car to Phil's graduation, because he wanted company.
9. Put the paper on the table, and it will stay clean.
10. Above the timber line the hikers made slow progress. The ascent from the valley had been rapid, for the trail circled the mountain and the grades were not steep. This irritated those who wanted to be "on top of the world."

C o h e r e n c e

The verb *cohere* means to stick or hold firmly together. As applied to writing, the noun *coherence* means a close and natural sequence of parts. Clauses, phrases, and single words should be related to one another in an orderly way. The use of modifiers must be clear.

D A N G L I N G P A R T I C I P L E

- 22. A participle should refer to a noun or pronoun named in the sentence; otherwise the participle will dangle.¹**

DANGLING PARTICIPLE: Coming in on the train, the high-school building is seen. [Is the building coming in? If not, who is?]

RIGHT: Coming in on the train, one sees the high-school building.

A sentence containing a dangling participle may be corrected (1) by supplying the missing noun or pronoun, or (2) by replacing the participle by some other construction.

DANGLING PARTICIPLE: Having taken our seats, the umpire announced the batteries.

RIGHT: Having taken our seats, we heard the umpire announce the batteries. [Or] When we had taken our seats, the umpire announced the batteries.

AMBIGUOUS TRAILING PARTICIPLE: Not enough attention is devoted to oral English, giving talks only twice a year. [A weak passive construction often gives trouble. See § 46.]

RIGHT: Not enough attention is devoted to oral English, the stu-

¹ The fault is similar to that of using a pronoun without an antecedent (see § 20).

dents giving talks only twice a year. [Or] Not enough attention is devoted to oral English, for the students give talks only twice a year.

SEMI-DANGLING PARTICIPLE: Having studied the problem, it looked simple to James. [The noun *James* is present, but it is not referred to.]

RIGHT: Having studied the problem, James thought it was simple. [Or] After the problem had been studied, it looked simple to James.

EXCEPTION: Phrases and clauses which qualify the whole sentence or which indicate general action do not dangle: "Generally speaking, women live longer than men."

EXERCISE

1. Entering the lobby, the visitor's attention is attracted by the rugs.
2. In a few months the bridge had to be condemned, started by an earthquake.
3. Being a physician, his automobile carries a special license plate.
4. Having won a scholarship, it was easy for him to go to college.
5. Will his election promises be kept, having been elected?

OTHER DANGLING ELEMENTS

- 23. Other modifiers (gerunds, infinitives, prepositional phrases, and dependent clauses) should not refer to a noun or pronoun unless it is named in the sentence.**

DANGLING GERUND: The address was concluded by reciting a passage from Wordsworth.

BETTER: The speaker concluded his address by reciting a passage from Wordsworth. [Or] The address was concluded by the recitation of a passage from Wordsworth.

SEMI-DANGLING INFINITIVE PHRASE: To learn golf, a good teacher should help you. [Who is to learn? The teacher? You?]

RIGHT: To learn golf, you should have the help of a good teacher.

DANGLING PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE: At the age of nine, my parents moved to New York.

RIGHT: At the age of nine, I moved with my parents to New York. [*Or*] When I was nine, we moved to New York.

DANGLING ELLIPTICAL CLAUSE (one from which words are omitted): My shoestring always breaks when hurrying to the office.

RIGHT: My shoestring always breaks when I am hurrying to the office.

SEMI-DANGLING GERUND: In talking with Brown, he told me the news.

RIGHT: In talking with Brown, I learned the news. [*Or*] During our talk, Brown told me the news.

EXERCISE

1. Always on time, his lateness today should be excused.
2. In winding the watch, the stem broke.
3. Your eyes should be on the road when driving.
4. To be safe from attack by sea, forts have been constructed on islands in the Atlantic.
5. His concert begins by playing "The Moonlight Sonata."

INTERCEPTED MODIFIER

- 24. A modifier should be placed near the word it modifies and separated from words which it might falsely seem to modify.¹**

RELATED IDEAS SEPARATED: Little Helen stood beside the horse wearing white stockings and slippers.

RIGHT: Little Helen, wearing white stockings and slippers, stood beside the horse.

¹ The problem is like that of placing a pronoun accurately (see § 21).

RELATED IDEAS SEPARATED: The colors of purple and green are pleasing to the eye as found in the thistle.

RIGHT: The purple and green of the thistle are pleasing.

RELATED IDEAS SEPARATED: Washington Irving spent a good deal of time studying the Alhambra on a tour of Spain.

RIGHT: On a tour of Spain Washington Irving spent a good deal of time studying the Alhambra.

BUNCHED MODIFIERS: I found a heap of snow on my bed in the morning which had drifted in through the window.

DISTRIBUTED MODIFIERS: In the morning I found on my bed a heap of snow which had drifted in through the window.

EXERCISE

1. He got a job just out of college.
2. Take advantage of our low prices, for they will not be duplicated during this sale.
3. The president started the dynamos by pressing a button seated at his desk.
4. The locomotive whistles outside the tunnel running at low speed.
5. Oil is pumped from beneath the ocean by petroleum engineers with slanted pipes.

SQUINTING MODIFIER

25. Avoid the squinting construction. That is, do not place between two parts of a sentence a modifier that may attach itself to either. Place the modifier where it cannot be misunderstood.

CONFUSING: I told him when the time came I would do it.
[*When the time came* is said to "squint" because the reader cannot tell whether it looks forward to the end of the sentence, or backward to the beginning.]

RIGHT: When the time came I told him I would do it. [Or] I told him I would do it when the time came.

CONFUSING: Some friends I knew would enjoy the play. [*I knew squints.*]

RIGHT: Some friends would enjoy the play, I knew.

CONFUSING: The orator whom everyone was calling for enthusiastically hurried to the platform. [*Enthusiastically-squints.*]

CLEAR: The orator whom everyone was enthusiastically calling for hurried to the platform.

EXERCISE

1. When rich food is eaten often it is hard to digest.
2. If you are with a scout you know you can count on him.
3. The neighbor whom I speak to occasionally smiles.
4. Building houses in many ways ought to be controlled by a planning board.
5. When France offered Louisiana to us much to our surprise the price wasn't large.

MISPLACED ADVERB OR DIRECTIVE EXPRESSION

26. Such an adverb as only, ever, almost should be placed near the word it modifies and separated from words which it might falsely seem to modify. A directive, or summarizing, expression like *however* or *nevertheless* should be used at or near the turning point in the thought.

ILLOGICAL: I only need a few dollars.

RIGHT: I need only a few dollars. [*Or*] I need a few dollars only.

ILLOGICAL: I don't ever intend to go there again.

RIGHT: I don't intend ever to go there again. [*Or*] I intend never to go there again.

ILLOGICAL: She has the sweetest voice I nearly ever heard.

RIGHT: She has nearly [*or almost*] the sweetest voice I ever heard.

TARDY USE OF *however*: I intend to try. I do not expect to accomplish much, however.

RIGHT: I intend to try. I do not, however, expect to accomplish much.

EXERCISE

1. By working hard all day I nearly earned four dollars.
2. The man on first base almost ran all the way to third on a foul ball.
3. That's one movie I don't ever intend to see a second time.
4. Fabrics would be stamped with labels that describe them accurately, if only consumers insisted.
5. Bricks were once made entirely by hand. Now they are machine-made, however.

AWKWARDLY SEPARATED
ELEMENTS

27. Elements that have a close grammatical connection should not be separated awkwardly or carelessly. These elements are (a) the subject and verb, or verb and object; (b) the parts of a compound verb; and (c) the infinitive.

AWKWARD SEPARATION OF SUBJECT AND VERB: One in the struggle for efficiency should not become a machine.

BETTER: In the struggle for efficiency one should not become a machine.

AWKWARD SEPARATION OF VERB AND OBJECT: When John arrives, give him, and tell him to take good care of, this medal.

BETTER: When John arrives, give him this medal and tell him to take good care of it.

AWKWARDLY SEPARATED PARTS OF A VERB: What use of an education could a girl who married a penniless rogue and afterward knew nothing but hard labor, make?

BETTER: What use of an education could a girl make who mar-

ried a penniless rogue and afterward knew nothing but hard labor?

AWKWARDLY SEPARATED COORDINATES: She looked up as he approached and smoothed her hair.

RIGHT: She looked up and smoothed her hair as he approached.

[Or] As he approached, she looked up and smoothed her hair.

SPLIT INFINITIVE: He was unable *to* even so much as *stir* a foot.

BETTER: He was unable even to stir a foot.

NOTE.—It is often desirable to separate the forms enumerated under (a) and (b) above, either for emphasis (see § 40) or to avoid a bunching of modifiers at the end of a sentence. The whole point of this rule, § 27, is not to depart from a natural order needlessly.

EXERCISE

1. A man ought throughout the year by one kind of exercise or another to keep fit.
2. He wanted to continuously go on skating all day.
3. An airplane, if it has a supercharger and if it uses the proper fuel, needs no carburetor.
4. Calvin Coolidge was, it will be remembered, at the time of the Boston police strike, governor of Massachusetts.
5. This formula will bring anyone who knows enough mathematics to follow it and who is familiar with the language of Wall Street success in predicting the market.

NATURAL SEQUENCE

- 28.** Place first in the sentence the idea which naturally comes first in thought or in the order of time. Do not begin one idea, abandon it for a second, and then return to the first. Complete one idea at a time.

FAULTY: If a person dies without having made a will, his money

goes to the state if he leaves no relatives. [Condition—main clause—condition.]

RIGHT: If a person dies without having made a will and leaves no relatives, his money goes to the state. [Condition—condition—main clause.]

FAULTY: We went to the station from the house after bidding all goodbye. [Action—completed action]

RIGHT: We said goodbye to all, and went from the house to the station.

INCOHERENT PASSAGE: Most automobiles are equipped with self-starters, differentials, and hydraulic brakes, and some have other improvements, perhaps an over-drive or an automatic gearshift. All used to have solid tires instead of pneumatic ones, and they had chain drives and mechanical brakes. People rightly called them horseless carriages. They have gone through a vast evolution. Now they resemble wingless airplanes. [*Logic and time* have been ignored. The transitions are feeble.]

RIGHT: Automobiles have gone through a vast evolution. In the beginning they had solid tires. They were started by cranking, they were chain-driven, and they were fitted with mechanical brakes. People rightly called them horseless carriages. But today the automobile is equipped with pneumatic tires, a self-starter, a differential, and hydraulic brakes. It is likely to have still other improvements, perhaps an over-drive or an automatic gearshift. What it now resembles is a wingless airplane.

EXERCISE

1. The Thirteen Colonies declared their independence after making demands that were not granted.
2. If he returns to the surface too suddenly, a diver may get "the bends," if he has been working at great depth.
3. Unless assets have been concealed, a bankrupt will be released from his debts if the creditors accept part payment.
4. The house has been in the family for generations, from the present occupants back to their Elizabethan ancestors.

5. A tennis court should have clear white lines. The fence around it should be strong and high. To be sure, the surface of the court should be smooth and the net should be adjustable. It would be well, also, to have plenty of room behind the base lines and beyond the alleys. Unless the drainage is good the surface will be hard to keep in condition.

29.

REVIEW OF REFERENCE
AND COHERENCE

A. REFERENCE OF PRONOUNS

In the following sentences make the reference of pronouns exact and unmistakable.

1. Leave the dishes in the rack, and that will dry them.
2. It says in the advertisement that the lawn mower has four blades.
3. If you sew those curtains on a sewing machine, it will go faster.
4. Our team had no reserve strength, which caused it to lose the game.
5. Philip asked Tom whether the pencil being shown him was his.
6. We were so fascinated by the glass blowers that we bought some.
7. A chimney allows smoke to escape if it is properly constructed.
8. The seeds should be removed to make good tomato butter and this is done by straining.
9. In Frost's "Mending Wall" he uses blank verse.
10. When the logs are in place, start it by touching a match to the paper.
11. The bull-fighter tricks them with a red cloak.
12. If a cat sees a mouse in a hole, it will play a waiting game.
13. A bush should be watered after it has been transplanted, for the roots need this.

14. The apartment house is being built of stucco instead of brick, which looks like rough plaster.
15. In the Montgomery Ward catalogue they have many illustrations.
16. Color reproductions are hard to tell from originals when they are well made.
17. The pilot safely landed the burning plane, which made him a hero.
18. Stephen Crane's *The Red Badge of Courage* is a war novel, but he wrote it without having seen a battle.
19. Mabel's appetite is dainty in the presence of other people, which isn't true when she is alone.
20. All the taxicab drivers have yellow ones.
21. The freighter left the dock, made for the channel, and in a few hours was far out at sea. This caused it to shrink to a pin point.
22. In a course in anatomy, which has to do with the bones of the body, a medical student must learn their names.
23. Martha heard from her mother that a party was being given for her.
24. McKelvey's Door and Sash Company has had a good year because he collected for everything he sold.
25. In the final tennis match Kelly won the first set. Then he tired, and Barnes rallied to win the second and third. That was all Kelly could do.

B. DANGLING OR SEMI-DANGLING ELEMENTS

Correct the following sentences by supplying the word which the participle, gerund, infinitive, prepositional phrase, or elliptical clause modifies, or by changing the construction.

1. When at home, one's manners ought to be remembered.
2. Settled late, the population of Wyoming is still small.
3. Her sense of humor is not lost, though tired.

4. Having been discovered in its laboratories, the University of Wisconsin holds a patent for the production of Vitamin D.
5. The demonstration of how to use a miniature press ends by printing souvenirs.
6. Although shaving, his hat was on.
7. To keep thin, desserts are not allowed.
8. T. S. Eliot's reputation grew, taking up residence in England.
9. In studying the lesson, it seemed to me very easy.
10. Crossing on the ferry, the skyline may be seen.
11. The oration is halted by waiting for the applause.
12. Illustrations are printed next to the articles they fit, rather than placing them at random.
13. No matter how warm, we drank the ginger ale.
14. To be free from interruptions, the door was closed.
15. Stirring its contents, the retort is placed over a flame.
16. In arguing with Freda, she told me what she really thinks.
17. While towing the car, a tire went flat.
18. The term of office is two years, appointed by the governor.
19. Be sure to watch the children until called.
20. We ate the pork, having been barbecued.

C. MISPLACED MODIFIERS IN GENERAL

In each of the following sentences the position of a word, phrase, or clause makes the meaning uncertain. Correct the fault.

1. Bread is delivered by trucks hot from the oven.
2. You can only vote when you have registered.
3. Money spent on repairs in time is money saved.
4. "Ballad for Americans" is a favorite of my father, recorded by Paul Robeson.
5. In the bureau drawer, she thought she heard a mouse.
6. Cotton Mather nearly wrote five hundred books and pamphlets.
7. In the dictionary I often see one word looking for another.

8. The people he roomed with formerly were his friends.
9. Scientists don't ever expect to invent a perpetual motion machine.
10. A Pekingese will bark at a big dog showing no fear.
11. Words are only signs. It is a mistake to treat them as if they were the things they signify, therefore.
12. The chameleon escapes its foes concealed by protective coloring.
13. Fountain pens are almost made entirely of plastics.
14. Some peaches are picked green instead of being allowed to ripen so that they may reach the market unspoiled.
15. Rangers are stationed to watch for forest fires on mountain tops.
16. I would go skiing if only snow would fall.
17. Mistakes should be corrected by the students marked with red ink.
18. Trains will leave at 2:15 every Tuesday and Thursday afternoon. This schedule is subject to change without notice, however.
19. The farmer said when he was young he wanted to go west.
20. As we passed above the field a transport was waiting for a signal.

D. COHERENCE IN GENERAL

Secure a clear, smooth, natural order for the following sentences.

1. Anyone may as often as he wants to swim in the pool.
2. Lively editorials would help to considerably increase the paper's circulation.
3. How tall ought a child if she is a girl three years old and weighs thirty-one pounds to be?
4. We got out when the bus stopped and stretched our legs.
5. If your debtor is out of the state you may collect if he owns property within the state.
6. One in using a textbook should learn its general plan.

7. Consumer cooperatives are a relatively new but may have a splendid future American business.
8. You are expected to satisfactorily complete your course.
9. Dictaphones are in many offices in use.
10. A snake if one ever put its tail in its mouth and rolled like a hoop was never seen doing so.
11. Columbus discovered land after he had sailed from Spain months before.
12. If a house is well insulated it should be easy to heat provided that it has a furnace of the right size.
13. Federal savings bonds for they can always be redeemed are a safe investment
14. Broadway plays if they are hits are likely to interest Hollywood producers in most cases.
15. Unemployment has because of our failure to use the machines sensibly been held due to them.
16. Miniature golf was in the late 20's a nation-wide fad but it today so far as I know is almost extinct
17. She tried to sweetly smile before the camera.
18. Thomas Hardy published poetry after 1898. He had become known before that time as a novelist. At the outset he was an architect.
19. A modern highway should have an island between the two main lanes of traffic. There should be glareless lights, no signboards, and banked curves. Intersecting roads should be on another level. The surface should be concrete.
20. The coincidence upon which the whole play is built of the one man in the whole world whom Anna is to love's being washed up by the sea on to her boat is miraculous.

Parallel Structure

A reader gives attention partly to the structure of a sentence, and partly to the thought. He takes uniform structure to be a sign of uniform ideas, and he expects a departure from uniformity to be accompanied by a change of thought.

PARALLEL STRUCTURE FOR PARALLEL THOUGHTS

- 30. Give parallel structure to those parts of a sentence which are parallel in thought.** Do not needlessly interchange an infinitive with a gerund, a phrase with a clause, a single word with a phrase or clause, a main clause with a dependent clause, one voice or mode of the verb with another, etc.

FAULTY: Swimming is sometimes better exercise than to walk.

RIGHT: Swimming is sometimes better exercise than walking.

[Or] To swim is sometimes better exercise than to walk.

FAULTY: Scott had two desires, of which the first was money; in the second place, he wanted fame.

RIGHT: Scott had two desires, of which the first was for money and the second for fame. [Or] Scott had two desires: in the first place he wanted money, in the second, fame.

FAULTY: His rival handled cigars of better quality and having a higher selling price.

RIGHT: His rival handled cigars of better quality and higher price.

FAULTY: When you have mastered the operation of shifting gears and after a little practice, you will be a good driver.

RIGHT: When you have mastered the operation of shifting gears and have had a little practice, you will be a good driver. [Or] After you master the gears and have a little practice, you will be a good driver.

FAULTY: These are the duties of the president of a literary society:

- (a) To preside at regular meetings
- (b) He calls special meetings
- (c) Appointment of committees

RIGHT: These are the duties of the president of a literary society:

- (a) To preside at regular meetings
- (b) To call special meetings
- (c) To appoint committees

FAULTY: Irene is actively connected with the club, church, and with several organized charities. [Here parallelism is obscured by the omission from the second phrase of both the preposition and the article.]

RIGHT: Irene is actively connected with the club, with the church, and with several organized societies.

FAULTY: He was red-faced, awkward, and had a disposition to eat everything on the table.

RIGHT: He had a red face, an awkward manner, and a disposition to eat everything on the table. [Or] He was red-faced, awkward, and voracious.

CLASSES NOT PARALLEL: The city is famous for its musicians, its science, and its architecture.

RIGHT: The city is famous for its musicians, its scientists, and its architects.

NOTE.—Avoid misleading parallelism. For ideas *different* in kind do *not* use parallel structure.

WRONG: He was hot, puffing, and evidently had run very hard. [The third element is unlike the others in thought; hence the *and* is misleading.]

RIGHT: He was hot and puffing; evidently he had run very hard.

AWKWARD: Their diversion is bridge, radio, and it used to be motion pictures.

BETTER: Their diversion is bridge and radio; it used to be motion pictures.

EXERCISE

1. Dickens has ability to describe places, narrative power, and portrays characters well.
2. The cowboy helped with rounding up the range cattle and to brand the calves.
3. Peter started to collect stamps in order to learn about geography and because he wants to please his father.
4. After he had won the hundred yard dash and no chance to rest he entered the broad jump.
5. Wolf Larsen is a man who believes in the survival of the fittest, caring nothing for the pain he causes others, and is finally caught in his own net.

CORRELATIVES

Conjunctions that are used in pairs are called correlatives; for example:

not only . . . but (or but also) . . . ,

both . . . and . . . ,

either . . . or . . . ,

neither (no, never) . . . nor . . . ,

not . . . or . . . ,

whether . . . or . . .

31. Correlatives should be followed by elements parallel in form; if a predicate follows one, a predicate should follow the other; if a prepositional phrase follows one, a prepositional phrase should follow the other; and so on.

FAULTY: He was not only courteous to rich customers but also to poor ones. [Here the phrases intended to be balanced against each other are *to rich customers* and *to poor ones*.]

RIGHT: He was courteous not only to rich customers but also to poor ones.

FAULTY: She can neither make up her mind to go nor can she decide to stay.

RIGHT: She can neither make up her mind to go nor decide to stay. [Or] She cannot make up her mind either to go or to stay.

FAULTY: I talked both with Brown and Miller. [Here one conjunction is followed by a preposition and the other by a noun.]

RIGHT: I talked with both Brown and Miller. [Or] I talked with Brown and with Miller.

EXERCISE

1. The library not only subscribes to *Time* but also to *Newsweek*.
2. When Franklin arrived in Philadelphia, he neither had friends nor money.
3. I do not know whether I should study French or to take a course in Spanish.
4. Our tooth paste is both endorsed by dentists and doctors.
5. A submarine can either refuel at sea or it can return to its base.

Consistency

Writing cannot be clear if grammatical forms become tangled. A construction must be orderly in itself and must not be so related to other constructions as to confuse the reader.

SHIFT IN SUBJECT OR VOICE

32. Do not needlessly shift the subject, voice, or mode in the middle of a sentence. Keep one point of view until there is a reason for change.

FAULTY: Bell invented the telephone, and it was the invention by which he influenced the whole world. [The change in subject is uncalled for.]

RIGHT: Bell invented the telephone and by it influenced the whole world. [Or] Bell's invention of the telephone has influenced the whole world.

FAULTY: When a problem in chemistry arises, or when we wish to calculate certain formulas, we find that a knowledge of mathematics is very useful. [The unnecessary change in subject also alters the point of view from impersonal to personal.]

RIGHT: When a problem in chemistry arises, or when certain formulas require calculating, a knowledge of mathematics is very useful. [Or] When we face a problem in chemistry, or wish to calculate certain formulas, we find that a knowledge of mathematics is very useful.

FAULTY: A careful driver can go eighteen miles on a gallon of gasoline, and at the same time very little lubricating oil is used. [The shift in subject involves an awkward shift from active to passive.¹]

RIGHT: A careful driver can go eighteen miles on a gallon of gasoline and at the same time use very little lubricating oil.

¹ The passive form generally is unemphatic. See § 46.

FAULTY: The ground should be harrowed, and then you sow the wheat. [The change in subject from *ground* to *you* involves a shift of mode: one verb explains what *should* be done, the other what somebody *does*.]

RIGHT: The ground is [*or should be*] harrowed, and then it is [*or should be*] sown to wheat. [*Or*] You should harrow the ground and then sow the wheat.

FAULTY: Conferences start at nine and are ended at noon. [The subject is the same, but there is an unnecessary shift from active to passive.]

BETTER: Conferences start at nine and end at noon.

AWKWARD CHANGE OF SUBJECT IN A NEW SENTENCE: You land at Bombay. Many strange-looking people are in the streets.

BETTER: You land at Bombay. You see many strange-looking people in the streets. [*Or*] When you land at Bombay, you see many strange-looking people in the streets.

EXERCISE

1. The tires should be properly inflated and check the battery.
2. Tomorrow the marathon will start at the bridge but will be ended at the stadium.
3. The movie criticizes the newly rich, although publicity seekers are also its targets.
4. Our examining committee sticks to required courses, and no questions are asked on electives.
5. If medicines are necessary or if we have to send telegrams, a village is conveniently near us.

SHIFT IN NUMBER, PERSON, OR TENSE

33. Do not needlessly change number, person, or tense.

FAULTY CHANGE IN NUMBER: One should do their best.

RIGHT: One should do his best. [*Or*] All should do their best.

CONSISTENCY

FAULTY CHANGE IN NUMBER: Take your umbrella with you. They will be needed today.

RIGHT: Take your umbrella with you. You will need it today.

FAULTY CHANGE IN PERSON: Place the seeds in water, and in a few days a person can see that they have started to grow.

RIGHT: Place the seeds in water, and in a few days you will see that they have started to grow.

FAULTY CHANGE IN TENSE: Freedom implies that a man may conduct his affairs as he pleases so long as he did not injure anybody else.

RIGHT: Freedom implies that a man may conduct his affairs as he pleases so long as he does not injure anybody else.

FAULTY CHANGE IN TENSE: When he heard the news, he hurries down town and buys a paper.

RIGHT: When he heard the news, he hurried down town and bought a paper.

NOTE.—A change of tense within a sentence is desirable and necessary in certain instances, for which see § 55.

Sometimes, for the sake of vividness, past events are described in the present tense, as if they were taking place before our eyes. This usage is called the *historical present*. A shift to the historical present should not be made abruptly, or frequently, or for any subject except an important crisis.

EXERCISE

1. School is over, and home we went.
2. Dolores often wears her mantilla. They are becoming to her.
3. I think that if one dislikes a certain vocation, you won't be happy in it.
4. These redwoods have been standing so long that by comparison it makes the oldest buildings in America look very new.
5. A person who is tolerant will keep their mind open to new ideas.

MIXED CONSTRUCTIONS

34. Do not make a compromise between two constructions.

FAULTY: He tried, but of no avail.

RIGHT: He tried, but to no avail. [Or] He tried, but his effort was of no avail.

FAULTY: I cannot help but go.

RIGHT: I cannot help going. [Or] I cannot but go. [Or] I can but go.

WRONG: Are you more interested in his life rather than in his art?

RIGHT: Are you more interested in his life or in his art? [Or] Are you interested in his life rather than in his art?

WRONG: He played in three games, giving him the right to wear the varsity letter. [*He . . . giving him?*]

RIGHT: He played in three games and thus gained the right to wear the varsity letter [Or] His playing in three games gave him the right to wear the varsity letter.

WRONG: When Jane trumped her partner's ace was surprising.

RIGHT: When Jane trumped her partner's ace, we were surprised. [Or] That Jane trumped her partner's ace was surprising.

WRONG: Our orchard will bear no oranges, caused by [or due to] the frost. [An adjective has been used to modify a clause.]

RIGHT: Our orchard will bear no oranges, because of [or on account of] the frost. [Or] The failure of our orchard to bear oranges was caused by [or due to] the frost.

NOTE.—Do not use a *when* or *where* clause as a predicate noun: "I read in the newspaper *that* [not *where*] rubber is being made from a plant grown in this country." Guard against the error particularly when making definitions. Define a noun by another noun, a verb by another verb, etc.

WRONG: { Refraction is where a ray is bent.
 { To exhale is when air is breathed out.

CONSISTENCY

RIGHT: { Refraction is the bending of a ray. [*Bending* is a verbal noun.]
To exhale is to breathe air out.

A *because* clause is always adverbial. Do not use it where a noun, or where a noun clause beginning with *that*, is called for.¹

WRONG: { The reason I whistle is because I am glad.
Because she was late made everybody late.

RIGHT: { The reason I whistle is that I am glad.
Her lateness [*or* The fact that she was late] made everybody late

EXERCISE

1. Born in a palace did not handicap him.
2. The college places more emphasis on intramural sports rather than on "big games."
3. Myopia is where one is nearsighted.
4. Aunt Sally is one of those persons who, if they get angry at all, they stay angry.
5. When the conductor tapped his baton was a signal to the orchestra.

DOUBLE NEGATIVES

35. Do not use the double negative and similar expressions (not hardly, not scarcely, etc.). These are gross forms of mixed construction (see § 34).

WRONG: He isn't no better now than he was then. [Logically, *not no better* means *better*. The two negatives cancel each other and leave an affirmative.]

RIGHT: He isn't any better now than he was then. [*Or*] He is no better now than he was then.

¹ Such usage is less severely banned in colloquial speech.

WRONG: She couldn't find her friend nowhere.

RIGHT: She couldn't find her friend anywhere. [Or] She could find her friend nowhere.

WRONG: We couldn't hardly see through the mist.

RIGHT: We could hardly see through the mist. [Or] We couldn't see well through the mist.

EXERCISE

1. He won't say nothing.
2. The Smiths don't live here no more.
3. Your offer cannot be accepted under no conditions.
4. The canoe went by without scarcely a ripple.
5. Rose couldn't hardly be expected to forgive her.

Use of Connectives between Clauses¹

Connectives are the words that tell the relation of one element to another. They may join single words (day *and* night, the lamp *on* the table), phrases (hearing the question *but* giving no answer), clauses (*Although* many try, few succeed. This is the book *which* John used. I thought *that* you agreed), a phrase and a clause (*Instead of* hurrying, they take their time), or a sentence to a preceding sentence (This is the main reason. *In addition* there are two others).

§§ 36 and 37 are restricted to connectives which join clauses.

OMISSION OF CONNECTIVES

36. Do not omit a connective which is needed to make the relation between clauses clear.¹

RELATIVE PRONOUN OMITTED: She is one of those students who talk in order to get attention and thus become a nuisance.

RIGHT: She is one of those students who talk in order to get attention and who thus become a nuisance.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION OMITTED: I shall eat lunch now not because I am hungry but it is being served.

RIGHT: I shall eat lunch now not because I am hungry but because it is being served.

¹ For omission of connectives between other elements than clauses, see § 2.

SIGN OF THE NOUN CLAUSE OMITTED: The reporter said that a fire had broken out during the night when no one was in the building and the damage was great.

RIGHT: The reporter said that a fire had broken out during the night when no one was in the building and that the damage was great.

NOTE.—Do not complicate thought by having a straggling series of elements begin with *that*, *which*, *for*, or *but*.

COMPLICATED REPETITION OF *that* He gave a quarter to the boy that brought the paper that printed the news that the war was ended.

RIGHT: He gave the boy a quarter for bringing him the paper with the news that the war was ended.

COMPLICATED REPETITION OF *but* He was undoubtedly a brave man, but now he was somewhat alarmed, but he would not turn back. [Guard against the *but* habit. Do not use *but* as a pivot for constantly alternating thought.]

RIGHT: He was undoubtedly a brave man; though now somewhat alarmed, he would not turn back. [*Or*] He was undoubtedly a brave man. He was now somewhat alarmed, but he would not turn back.

EXERCISE

1. Have you known people who try to live beyond their means and go bankrupt?
2. Our trip to Washington was very interesting, for we were able to see the members of the Supreme Court, for they were in session.
3. I think that she will go along when the time comes and she will be good company.
4. Her first impression was that the stadium was packed because a crowd stood outside and her trip was for nothing.
5. My watch has always kept good time, but now it is fast, but it gains less than a minute a day.

INEXACT CONNECTIVES

37. Use a connective which expresses the exact relation between clauses. Errors arise (1) when a preposition (*like, without*) is used instead of a conjunction (*as, unless*), (2) when a coordinating connective is used instead of a subordinating connective, or vice versa, and (3) when a coordinating or subordinating connective is used loosely (*while* instead of *although*; *and, but, so* instead of more accurate terms).¹

PREPOSITION USED INSTEAD OF CONJUNCTION: He thinks hard *like* his father did. [Use *as*.]

PREPOSITION USED INSTEAD OF CONJUNCTION: They will be sorry *without* they do this. [Use *unless*.]

TIME CONFUSED WITH CONCESSION: *While* he is sick, he is able to walk. [Use *though*.]

TIME CONFUSED WITH CONDITION: Work hard *when* you want to succeed. [Use *if*.]

ADDITION INSTEAD OF CONTRAST. We arrived early, *and* they were delayed. [Use *whereas*.]

INACCURATE AND EXCESSIVE USE OF *so*. So I went to call on Mrs. Woods, and *so* she told me about Mrs. White's new gown; *so* then I missed the car, and *so* of course our supper is late. [Strike out every *so*]

NOTE.—Between clauses the following kinds of connective may be used:

I. Coordinating connectives

These join clauses grammatically equal ("He looked *but* he did not see." "If he comes *and* if I meet him he shall get your message").

¹ See § 38 for a classification of connectives of all types according to idea.

- A. Simple coordinating conjunctions: *and, but, or, nor, for, yet*. (*For* is also a preposition and *yet* an adverb.)
- B. Correlative conjunctions: *not only . . . but also . . .*, etc. (see § 31).
- C. Conjunctive adverbs (certain adverbs which, when used at or near the beginning of a sentence or an independent clause, have the force of conjunctions): *accordingly, also, besides, consequently, further, furthermore, hence, however, indeed, likewise, moreover, namely, nevertheless, notwithstanding* (more often a preposition), *otherwise, so, still, then, therefore, thus, too*, and in colloquial use, *anyhow, anyway*, and *only* (see § 94a, Note 1 for punctuation).

II. Subordinating connectives

These join clauses grammatically unequal: (A) "After they left, we left"; (B) "There was the bus, *which* we took"; (C) "He explained *that* it would pass."

- A. Subordinating conjunctions (certain adverbs and conjunctions used to introduce adverbial clauses): *after, although as, as if, as long [much, soon, well] as, as though, because, before, even if, even though, if, in order that, lest, provided that, since, so that, though, unless, until, when, whence, whenever, where, whereas, wherever, while, whither, why*.
- B. Relative pronouns (introducing adjectival clauses): *who, which, that, what* (= *that* or *those which*), and *as*. *Who, which, and that* are sometimes omitted: "the man [that] I spoke of."
- C. Signs of the noun clause: *that* or *whether* (for indirect statements), *who, which, what, whatever, whose, when, where, how much, why*, etc. (for indirect questions).

EXERCISE

1. While the trolley was connected, the streetcar would not go.
2. The pardon isn't valid without the governor signs it.
3. He is fond of the water like other boys are.
4. Use amber lights when you want to drive safely in the fog.
5. So Mark Twain learned the landmarks along the Mississippi, and so he got a job on a river boat; so then he made many trips as pilot, and so he felt very proud.

LISTS OF CONNECTIVES

38. Add to your stock of connectives. Study good usage.

**Connectives (of All Types)
Arranged According to Meaning**

1. **Addition:** and, besides, furthermore, in addition, likewise, moreover, next, now, again, in the second place, in like manner, as well as, finally.
2. **Contrast:** but, yet, however, nor, still, whereas, nevertheless, in contrast to, on the contrary, notwithstanding, rather, for all that, instead of, in spite of.
3. **Comparison:** likewise, in the same way, similarly, in like manner, equally . . . , much more . . . , of even greater . . . , just as . . . , rather than.
4. **Alternative:** or, nor, neither, otherwise, else, or on the other hand, instead of.
5. **Explanation:** for, for example, for instance, in particular, more specifically, at that point.
6. **Repetition or emphasis:** in fact, in short, in truth, in other words, that is to say, in particular, as I have said, surely, certainly, obviously, undoubtedly.
7. **Time:** after, before, when, whenever, while, until, whereupon, so long as, so often as, as soon as, then, once, on one

occasion, now, at present, next, afterwards, immediately, since then, at last, at length, meanwhile, temporarily.

8. **Place:** where, wherever, above, below, between, beyond, farther, here and there, in the foreground, nearer, to the right, northward, underneath, opposite to, in either place, on the other side.
9. **Manner:** as, as if, as though, with, by, in spite of, fortunately.
10. **Concession:** although, though, even if, while (if care is taken not to suggest time), of course, perhaps, possibly, probably, naturally, to be sure, granted that.
11. **Condition:** if, unless, whereas, provided that, in case that, supposing that.
12. **Cause or reason:** because, since, seeing that, for this reason, on that account.
13. **Purpose or result:** in order that, so that, that, lest, for this purpose, so, therefore, thus, as a result, in this way, accordingly, consequently, hence, the consequence is, under these conditions.

Glossary of Faulty Connectives

Also. Since *also* is an adverb, its only use as a conjunction must be between independent clauses. Do not use it loosely in place of *and* or *as well as*. "For our picnic we had salad, potato chips, ice cream, *and* [not *also*] cold drinks."

And etc. *And* here is redundant; *etc.* is an abbreviation of *et cetera*, meaning *and others*.

As. (a) Weak and ambiguous in place of *for*, *because*, *since*, or *seeing that* to express cause "The tire was flat *because* (not *as*) a nail had pierced it" (b) Incorrect in place of *while* or *when* to express continuing action. "A man across the street is washing his car *while* [not *as*] his wife sits on the porch." (c) Incorrect when used for the preposition *like*.¹ "The flying fish

¹ Do not be misled by the fact that a preposition may have an entire dependent clause as its object (see § 50d), or may take an object modified by a participle ("The spiral nebula looks like a grindstone *wrapped* with a whirling halo of sparks").

actually flies *like* [not *as*] a bird." *Like* here governs the noun *bird*. Do not assume that a verb *does* is "understood." (d) Incorrect when used alone to introduce an appositive. Use *such as* or *such . . . as*. "The class studies many types of poetry, *such as* [not *as*] the ballad, the epic, and the lyric." (e) Vulgar for the relative pronoun *who*, *which*, or *that*. "This is the man *that* [not *as*] I was telling you about." (f) Vulgar for *that* or *whether* to introduce a noun clause. "I don't know *that* [not *as*] I understand you." See **Like**.

As . . . as. Correlatives. *Than* must not replace the second *as*. Wrong: "As good or better than his neighbors." Right: "As good as his neighbors, or better [than they]."

As long as. Not to be misused for *since*. NOT CLEAR: "*As long as* I have the money, I will pay for the gas" Is the speaker making a long-term offer, or does he mean "*Since* I have the money . . .?"

As well as. A conjunction, not to be used for the preposition *besides*. "This week I read two novels *besides* [not *as well as*] doing all my home work."

Because. Do not use *because* for *that* or *the fact that* to introduce a noun clause. See § 34 Note.

Being as, being as how, and being that. Vulgar for *because*, *since*, or *seeing that*. "He thought the price was high, *since* [not *being as*] he had so little to spend."

But what. Vulgar for *that* or *but*. After *not impossible*, *not improbable*, *cannot be doubted*, *no question*, and *no doubt* use *that*. "It is not impossible *that* [not *but what*] he may yet be found." After verbs of knowing used with a negative, *but* is required. CORRECT: "I don't know *but* [or *but that*] you are right."

Caused by. Incorrect when used for *because of* or *on account of* to refer to a verb. See § 34.

Different than. See **Than** (b).

Directly. Vulgar for *as soon as*. *Directly* is an adverb, not a conjunction. "*As soon as* [not *directly*] we reached the grounds, we set about gathering wood."

Due to. Incorrect when used for *because of* or *on account of* to refer to a verb. See § 34.

If. (a) Colloquial for *whether* in indirect questions and expressions of doubt. INDIRECT QUESTION: "Mother did not say *whether* [not *if*] she would write." DOUBT: "We are not certain *whether* [not *if*] she will write." (b) Colloquial for *even though*. "We have made up our minds to go *even though* [colloquial *if*] it does rain."

Immediately. Not to be used for *as soon as*. *Immediately* is an adverb, not a conjunction.

Like. Not to be used for *as*, *as if*, or *the way*. *Like*, which is essentially an adjective or adverb, has the force of a preposition, but not of a conjunction. It must govern a noun, not a clause. "It looks like *rain*." [*Like* is a predicate adjective, and it also governs *rain*] "He has a bad temper like his *father*" [*Like* modifies *he* and governs *father*. If the sentence read "like his father's," *like* would modify *temper* and govern *father's*.] "The racing car flashed by like a *rocket*." [*Like* is an adverb modifying *flashed by* and governs *rocket*]

If a noun which at first seems to be the object of *like* proves on closer scrutiny to be the subject of a predicate verb, use a conjunction in place of *like*. "It looks *as if* [not *like*] our foreign trade will soon be cut off." "He does not think about things *as* [not *like*] the manager does." "Not many of us have the perseverance to study *the way* [= *in the way that*] scholars do." See *As*.

Nor. *Nor* is the negative of *or*, usually meaning *and not*. (a) With the negative *neither* use the negative *nor*. (See § 31.) (b) Elsewhere it is harder to tell whether the negative must be repeated. "She does not see *or* feel." [Here the force of the auxiliary *does* carries over to *feel*, carrying with it the negative force of *not*.] "She does not see, *nor* does she feel." [There is nothing here to carry the negative of the first clause over to the second; hence *nor* is required to make the second clause negative.] "The teacher said that no papers would be returned

or grades given out." [The negative force of *no* is carried over from *papers* to the parallel noun *grades*.] "The teacher said that *no* papers would be returned *nor* anyone be permitted to keep a copy of his paper." [The second clause has no noun parallel with *papers* to carry over the negative.]

No sooner . . . when. See When (a).

On account of. Not to be used for *because*. *On account of* is a preposition, not a conjunction. "I feel groggy this morning *because* [not *on account of*] I couldn't sleep last night." [Or] "I feel groggy this morning on account of sleeplessness last night."

Only. Colloquial for *but*. "Today, at last, he was going to college, *but* [only would be colloquial] college no longer meant the same to him."

Or. With *either* use *or*, not the negative *nor*. See Nor.

Providing. The correct form is the past participle *provided*.

So. (a) Incorrect for *so that* to express purpose. If the *so* is intended to mean *in order that*, use *so that* or reduce the clause to an infinitive phrase, with or without *in order*. "He borrowed a hundred dollars *so that* [not *so*] he could buy [or *in order to buy*, or *to buy*] a better car." (b) Abused as a coordinating conjunction. The excessive use of *so* is a characteristic of vulgar and colloquial English. Use it sparingly in narrative (see § 15); try to avoid it altogether in expository writing, using either the stronger *hence* or *therefore*, or subordinating the preceding clause.

Such. (a) To be completed by *that*, rather than by *so that*, when a result clause follows. "There was such a crowd *that* [not *so that*] he did not find his friends." (b) To be completed by *as*, rather than by *that*, *who*, or *which*, when a relative clause follows. "I will accept such arrangements *as* [not *that*] may be made." "He called upon such soldiers *as* [not *who*] would volunteer for this service to step forward."

Than. (a) Incorrect for *when* after *hardly* or *scarcely*. "The speaker had hardly begun to speak *when* [not *than*] a man

shouted, 'Silence!'" (b) Incorrect for *from* after *different*. "Their heavy adobe soil is different *from* [not *than*] the sandy soil you are used to."

That. Incorrect for *when* or *where* to introduce a relative clause. *When* and *where* are the equivalent of *at* or *to which*. "The time *when* [not *that*] he arrived was not disclosed."

Then. (a) Primarily an adverb. Use it as a conjunctive adverb only between independent clauses. When the parts to be joined are not independent clauses, use *and then*. "She swept the room with an angry glance *and then* [not *then* alone] turned to some one behind her." (b) Not to be confused with *than*. "He is taller *than* [not *then*] I."

Then too. A mincing connective, overused in both writing and speaking. *Moreover*, *besides*, *further*, and *in addition* are stronger and less conspicuous. See **Too**.

Til. There is no need for this abbreviation; *until* and *till* are interchangeable.

Too. Weak when used for *further*, *besides*, etc., as a conjunction to begin a sentence or clause. See **Then too**.

When. (a) Unidiomatic for *than* after *no sooner*. "The rain had no sooner begun to fall *than* [not *when*] we lost our path." (b) Incorrect for *that*. "It was in the afternoon *that* [not *when*] the races began." (c) Incorrect as part of a clause [*when* clause] used as a predicate noun, especially in definitions. See § 34 Note.

Where. Incorrect for *that* in noun clauses. See § 34 Note.

While. (a) Often misleading for *and*, *but*, or *whereas*. *While* has as its primary meaning *during the time when*. Thus it should not be used to express concession in a context which implies time. "John drives their V-8 at sixty miles, *whereas* [*while* would be absurd] his father drives it at about thirty." (b) Often misleading for *although*. "*Although* [*while* might be misleading] I bought a season ticket, I had no time to see the games."

Without. Incorrect for *unless*. *Without* is a preposition, not a conjunction. "I won't be able to keep the job I have now *unless* [not *without*] I can get Saturdays off."

EXERCISE

1. "Free" is a story fettered by awkward style just like its leading character is fettered by conventions
2. The kettle did not boil as the fire was out.
3. John took a walk being as he was restless.
4. I read in a history of England where Sir Philip Sidney died at Zutphen.
5. The bus started forward directly the light turned green.
6. While this garden is very young, it contains many flourishing plants.
7. I have heard him roar as a lion.
8. It cannot be doubted but what good roads have been an advantage.
9. Father often speaks of the time that he lived on a farm.
10. The colonists needed food and so John Smith bought corn from the Indians so the colonists did not starve but soon more was needed and so Smith again had to bargain.

39.

REVIEW OF CLEARNESS

A. PARALLEL STRUCTURE

Give parallel structure to elements which are parallel in thought.

1. Farming is an older occupation than to teach.
2. When I left home, I both forgot pen and pencil.
3. The meals are wholesome, appetizing, and cost very little.
4. This soap may either be used for washing or for shaving.
5. Lefty is a young pitcher, but showing a great deal of promise.
6. The story deals with a man as he drives past a stop light and his reactions thereafter.
7. I asked at a book shop where old magazines are sold and because prices are low, for a back copy of *Fortune*.
8. He had worked on a freighter, passenger boat, and on a yacht.

9. Thomas Jefferson knew a good deal about politics, education, and how to plan buildings.
10. You have the following responsibilities:
 - (a) Keeping the books
 - (b) To do all the typing
 - (c) You are to run the office.
11. The car is old, battered, and has probably been in several collisions.
12. Cowley stayed in France because he could live there cheaply and in order to study French.
13. He enjoyed dusting erasers and to wash the blackboard.
14. The well neither produced oil nor gas.
15. On the court Richards had the ability to last, speed, and changed pace well.
16. Our dog is not only a favorite with us but with the neighborhood.
17. After Wesley had preached in one town and its people being deeply stirred he moved on to preach in another.
18. Some radios can either operate on alternating current or on direct.
19. Charles was fat, easy-going, and made friends quickly.
20. These writers exposed such practices as the adulterating of food, the unlicensed sale of narcotics, and those who use the mails to defraud.
21. We are pestered by burros which were brought into Grand Canyon by prospectors and having gone wild.
22. If you are dissatisfied, you may either exchange the lamp or you may receive your money back.
23. The army plane looks unlike the one from the navy.
24. The crowd was so great that we could neither go forward nor could we go backward.
25. Taxes are to be raised in three ways:
 - (a) A higher tax on luxuries
 - (b) By increasing the income tax
 - (c) A sales tax will be levied on all necessities.

B. SHIFT IN SUBJECT OR VOICE

Rewrite the following sentences, avoiding unnecessary shift in construction.

1. The department of highways ran a safety campaign, and good results were had.
2. Lewis Carroll wrote *Alice in Wonderland*, and it is the book by which he is best known.
3. The exercises begin with an invocation and are ended with a hymn.
4. Be sure to see the show, and you should go early.
5. If you want to understand the referendum, the way it works in practice should be studied.
6. Paul worked hard, and finally his record cabinet was finished.
7. Next eggplant is sliced. Then you dip it into the batter.
8. A good swimmer can keep going for a long time, and not much fatigue will be evident.
9. Piccard had the balloon ready, and the ascension was made by him.
10. She returned to college. Many unfamiliar faces were to be seen.
11. When we are tired or when some one challenges our beliefs, our tempers are likely to be short.
12. First, the old glue is removed. Then you put on a fresh coat.
13. The warehouse contains lamps and furniture, although bedding is also stored there.
14. If you ever wish to play golf, or if tennis is desired, the county park is the place for you to go.
15. The nail was driven into the wall, and he hung the picture.
16. Trout are raised at the hatchery. Then streams are stocked with them.
17. Your goal is not just to be a doctor. You should place it higher.
18. Vacuum sweepers operate by suction. Deep dirt can be removed by them, and they can pick up lint.

19. The nest was left. The young bird tried its wings, which could hardly support it.
20. We entered the studio. Unfinished sketches were visible all around us.

C. SHIFT IN PERSON, NUMBER, OR TENSE

Rewrite the following sentences, removing all inconsistency in grammatical form.

1. In a city like this your traffic problem is always with us.
2. A person needs to watch their language.
3. Although the streetcar had started, Frank jumps on.
4. All of us like puns, even if it is only the lowest form of wit.
5. One spends more time eating and sleeping than they realize.
6. Roofs should be made of fire-proof material, for it's exposed to sparks.
7. Joe hears the score and got excited.
8. After a flying boat has made a long trip, they require looking over.
9. One should learn to use your hands.
10. The squad shows such good teamwork that they ought to win easily.
11. Be sure to take your scarf. They may come in handy.
12. If they don't pay attention, a person can't remember.
13. The legal profession is not well organized although they have bar associations.
14. The picture was over, and they go to a soda fountain.
15. If a person has good intentions, should you get some credit?

D. THE MIXED CONSTRUCTION AND THE DOUBLE NEGATIVE

Some of the following sentences show a compromise between two constructions. Some employ a double negative. Make all the sentences consistent and logical.

1. I haven't had no success.
2. The production of coffee exceeds the demand, resulting in low prices.
3. You seldom see a car with a left hand drive no more.
4. There aren't but two sides to a fence.
5. To accelerate is when speed is increased.
6. When one learns irregular verbs is good memory training.
7. I believe that in the beginning poetry had musical accompaniment, so why not now?
8. The light went out caused by a short circuit.
9. Diplomacy is where a nation officially has dealings with another.
10. At Montori's it is the custom that, if tea is served, for glasses to be used instead of cups.
11. He may be in the wrong, but he can't help but argue.
12. Because the gasoline supply was exhausted is the reason the plane came down.
13. It is through practice that enables him to play out of sand traps.
14. She took dictation at top speed, enabling her to compete in the big contest.
15. I see in the contract where I am expected to pay the freight.
16. When locks have'been out of use makes oiling necessary.
17. Have you spent more time on civics rather than on history?
18. Pat is one of those horses that, if they run at all, they run for the barn.
19. The reason Coleridge did not finish the poem is because he was interrupted.
20. You couldn't hardly blame the boy.
21. With all her practice she can't typewrite no better than before.
22. The bill was passed without scarcely a dissenting vote.
23. Descended from a military family did not influence him to make the army his career.
24. The visitor had a suggestion which he wanted to send it to the superintendent.

25. It is after much study that qualifies a man to do research in chemistry.

E. CONNECTIVES OMITTED OR REPEATED

In the following sentences determine whether connectives should be omitted or inserted, and make all necessary changes.

1. Who was it who asked who I am?
2. Paine argued that the colonies would gain nothing if they clung to England and they had the right of revolution.
3. It is not that books are real but that they give the illusion of being so that is the point that should be stressed.
4. They played bridge not because they liked it, but they were expected to play.
5. Father's illness is one of the cases which are hard to diagnose and delay treatment.
6. People drive miles for this water, for it is very pure, for it is piped from a mountain spring.
7. I have a job at that store that opened in that building that was empty all winter.
8. If people talk while you are studying, as very well may happen, or the radio starts, can you concentrate?
9. Harvey is one of those persons who try hard to make friends and lose them.
10. The spark ignites the gasoline, which explodes and which causes the pistons to move, which motion affects the crank shaft, which in turn causes the wheels to turn.
11. He does not like to give encores, but he gives them if the audience insists, but he never gives more than two, but these are not mere trifles.
12. The contractors had to start over because the foundations of the house had slipped although they were concrete, and there was danger that the walls might crack.

13. When the pioneers chose a site when they wanted to settle, when they had been travelling for months, they chose it carefully.
14. Because he was energetic, although he was not a good speaker and worked hard, he became president of the club.
15. It was the church in which the lantern was hung which gave the signal which started Paul Revere.

F. THE EXACT CONNECTIVE

Rewrite the following sentences, replacing the faulty connectives.

1. While heavy, Bill is a fast runner.
2. The baby played with the string just like a cat does.
3. Save your pennies when you want to have dollars.
4. The car is fitted with a clock, a radio, a heater, also with a lighter.
5. My son never cuts the grass, only when he wants a favor.
6. An amphibian can "land" on water or land, and a seaplane cannot "land" on land
7. Taxes can't be lowered without the budget is revised.
8. I want to learn Spanish, being as it is the principal language of South America.
9. No sooner was the ink dry when the agreement was broken.
10. The house is different than most modern houses.
11. Our dairy produces milk, cream, butter, cheese, and etc.
12. As long as I am here, I shall stay a little longer.
13. The discovery of gold had hardly been reported than the rush was on.
14. Catherine spends her whole allowance directly she receives it.
15. He tends to exaggerate due to his enthusiasm.
16. The reason we couldn't get Europe is because of static.
17. The English spelling is *judgement*, and the American spelling is *judgment*.

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

18. McDonald lost the Indianapolis race on account of his car broke down.
19. The hills are green like a post card looks.
20. George Bellows, the painter, knew baseball, as he had played on the Ohio State team
21. There is no doubt but what new uses will be found for television.
22. Paganini composed music as well as playing the violin.
23. During the summer vocational courses as printing, drafting, and die-casting are offered
24. I see in the paper where Fordham reports an earthquake.
25. So Lincoln studied law, and so he opened a partnership; and so he became known, and so he was asked to run for office.

EMPHASIS

A writer's ideas vary in importance. Some are primary, some are secondary, and others are only incidental. To make their *relative* importance plain the writer must phrase and arrange them with proper emphasis.

EMPHASIS BY POSITION

10. Reserve the emphatic positions in a sentence for the words which express the most important ideas.¹ (The emphatic positions are the beginning and the end—especially the end.)

WEAK: I demand the release of the prisoners, in the first place.

WEAK: This principle is one we cannot afford to accept, if my understanding of the question is correct.

Place the important idea at the end. Secure, if possible, an emphatic beginning. "Tuck in" unimportant modifiers.

EMPHATIC: I demand, in the first place, the release of the prisoners.

EMPHATIC: This principle, if my understanding of the question is correct, is one we cannot afford to accept.

WEAK ENDING REPEATED: I did not recognize the president in the crowd. It was hardly possible to recognize anyone in the crowd.

MORE EMPHATIC: I did not recognize the president. It was hardly possible, in the crowd, to recognize anyone.

¹ This rule must be applied with caution. It must not cause a clear and natural sequence of parts to be set aside clumsily (see §§ 27 and 28).

EXERCISE

1. Apparently some children are born wise.
2. Tennyson was both near-sighted and far-sighted, it is said.
3. An avocation may become a vocation, if things go right.
4. Violins worth incredible sums were in his workshop.
5. "Chicago" seems to be the poem that Sandburg is known best for.

EMPHASIS BY SEPARATION

- 41. An idea which needs much emphasis should be detached and allowed to stand in a sentence by itself. (See § 11.)**

FAULTY: The flames were by this time beyond control, and the walls collapsed, and several firemen were hurt. [The ideas here are too important to be run together in one sentence.]

RIGHT: By this time the flames were beyond control, and the walls collapsed. Several firemen were hurt.

UNEMPHATIC: Getting a saddle on Jerry doesn't count for much, for many a person has tried to ride that mule.

BETTER: Getting a saddle on Jerry doesn't count for much. Many a person has tried to ride that mule. [The second statement still explains the first but with a gain in emphasis.]

UNEMPHATIC: Mosher leaped to the stage and shouted defiantly, "I will never consent to that!" and he looked as if he meant what he said. [Direct discourse is more forceful if separated from explanatory phrases, particularly from those which follow.]

BETTER: Mosher leaped to the stage and shouted his defiance. "I will never consent to that!" And he looked as if he meant what he said.

EXERCISE

1. The fertile lowlands were already taken up and the mountain slopes were too rocky for farming and he had to push on.
2. I like John and Mary and their children, and I can't say enough about them.
3. There was a burst of applause as he repeated, "Give me liberty or give me death!" and he seemed unaware of it.
4. The tunnel is drilled, the road is down, the lights are in, and the official opening will take place tomorrow.
5. In the present plan there are too many elective courses and not enough solid requirements, and therefore the whole curriculum ought to be revised.

EMPHASIS BY SUBORDINATION

42. Place the important idea of a sentence in a main clause. If possible, subordinate the rest of the sentence to it. (See §§ 16 and 18.)

FAULTY RELATIVE CLAUSE: He had a manner which made me angry. [The unimportant idea (*he had a manner*) stands out; the important idea (*the manner made me angry*) is half-lost in a subordinate clause.]

UNIMPORTANT IDEA REDUCED TO A MODIFIER: His manner made me angry.

FAULTY PARTICIPIAL PHRASE: She fell, thereby breaking an arm.

UNIMPORTANT IDEA REDUCED TO A PHRASE: In falling, she broke an arm.

UPSIDE-DOWN SUBORDINATION: I was walking down Broad Street, as I saw a man on stilts. [The important idea is in the dependent clause.]

UNIMPORTANT IDEA REDUCED TO A DEPENDENT CLAUSE: As I was walking down Broad Street, I saw a man on stilts.

EXCESSIVE COORDINATION: The Allegheny County Court House was designed by Richardson, and it is an impressive stone building, and it is considered one of his architectural triumphs. [No one idea is made more important than the others.]

RIGHT: The Allegheny County Court House, an impressive stone building, is considered one of Richardson's architectural triumphs.

EXERCISE

1. The mechanic heats the fender, and thus he is able to iron out the dents.
2. Our chef wears a cap, which is white.
3. The pistol was fired, when the runners leaped forward.
4. My room faces west, and it gets the afternoon sun.
5. Tractors were used, thereby displacing horses.

The Periodic Sentence

When minor ideas in a sentence are properly subordinated (§ 42) and the most important idea is placed last (§ 40), the delay in completing the main thought creates suspense. A sentence having this effect is called *periodic*. Its opposite, the *loose* sentence, begins with the main idea. Both kinds are useful. Learn to write them both well. Do not let a periodic sentence be stiff; do not let a loose sentence be so loose as to kill interest.

Elements in a series should be arranged to show growth in emphasis. If a trivial element is placed in the final position, the effect will be weak and may be ridiculous.

EMPHASIS THROUGH SUSPENSE AND CLIMAX

- 43.** To give more emphasis to a loosely constructed sentence, recast it so that the main thought will not come first. If the sentence contains elements in a series, arrange them in the order of their importance.

Loose: The pilot turned his ship and swung by us with no room to spare when he saw our lights. [The main fact is followed by less important information expressed through modifiers.]

SEMI-PERIODIC: The pilot, seeing our lights, turned his ship and swung by us with no room to spare. [The dependent clause, converted into a phrase, has been placed between the subject and the verbs of the main clause. See § 24 for awkward bunching of modifiers.]

FULLY PERIODIC: When he saw our lights, the pilot, turning his

ship with no room to spare, swung by us. [The dependent clause has been placed first, and two phrases have been placed between the subject and its main verb.]

LOOSE: The talkies were not a success until "The Jazz Singer" was produced by Warner Brothers, although sound had been experimented with frequently.

SEMI-PERIODIC: Although sound had been experimented with frequently, the talkies were not a success until Warner Brothers produced "The Jazz Singer."

FULLY PERIODIC: Although frequent experiments had been made with sound, not until Warner Brothers produced "The Jazz Singer" were the talkies a success.

LOOSE: I saw two men fight a duel, many years ago, on a moonlit summer night in a little village in northern France. [What is most important? Is it last?]

PERIODIC: Many years ago on a moonlit summer night in a little village in northern France I saw two men fight a duel.

LOOSE: The river swept away the dam, and it had been swollen with incessant rain. [Which is the important idea? Why not make it appear more important by placing it last and by subordinating everything to it?]

PERIODIC: The river, swollen with incessant rain, swept away the dam. [A dependent phrase has been placed between subject and verb.]

WEAK ORDER: As we listened to his story, we felt the sordid misery and the peril and fear of war.

EMPHATIC: As we listened to his story, we felt the fear, the peril, the sordid misery of war.

EXERCISE

1. This dog will snap if he is teased.
2. He straddled the banister and slid down backwards, for he had reached the top of the stairs.
3. Our word-borrowings from the Indians are few comparatively,

although Indian place names are common in modern America.

4. Education has become harder to define at every level since the beginning of the last century, when it was first popularized.
5. The box contained dimes, quarters, and nickels.

EMPHASIS THROUGH BALANCE OR CONTRAST

- 44. Two ideas similar or opposite in thought gain in emphasis when set off, one against the other, in similar constructions.**

WEAK AND STRAGGLING: This paper, like many others, has many bad features, but in some ways it is very good. The news articles are far better than the editorials, which are feeble.

BALANCED STRUCTURE: This paper is in some respects good; in other respects very poor. The news articles are impressive; the editorials are feeble. [The balancing of facts or ideas is made more emphatic by the balancing of grammatical forms (parallelism—see § 30).]

RAMBLING ENUMERATION: He was interested in people of all kinds: the young, the gay, the serious, the old, the good, the weak, the strong, the bad.

CONTRASTED PAIRS: He was interested in people of all kinds: the young and the old, the gay and the serious, the strong and the weak, the good and the bad.

BALANCE PURPOSELY INTERRUPTED: John was a saint. Stephen was a martyr. But Judas—what shall I say of him? [The parallelism of the first two sentences leads us to expect more. The interruption makes the contrast emphatic.]

NOTE.—Although excessive use of balance is artificial, occasional use of it strengthens writing. It can add either dignity (as in an oration) or point (as in an epigram). Observe how many proverbs are in balanced structure. "Seeing is

believing.—Nothing venture, nothing have.—An eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth." Note the effective use of balance in Emerson's *Essays*, particularly in *Compensation*; and in the Old Testament, particularly in *Psalms* and *Proverbs*.

EXERCISE

1. We all have our preferences in food. Some like hot soup; cold consommé seems best to others.
2. In 1776 Washington was disliked by Englishmen, but a generation later they admired him.
3. To hear programs rustle and the sight of an orchestra's industry—these do not add to one's enjoyment of music.
4. Shadows lengthening across the field; into the sea dropped the sun; the moon grew bolder.
5. At the family reunion everybody gathered: father, aunts, uncles, mother, sons, daughters, and all the cousins.

EMPHASIS THROUGH SPECIFIC STATEMENTS AND CON- CRETE DETAILS

- 45.** When emphasis is called for, make statements specific and concrete rather than general and abstract. (For specific words as an aid to exactness see § 64.)

GENERAL: In the old days most books were produced in just a few cities. [When? What? Where?]

SPECIFIC: Before 1800 nearly all American books were published in Boston, Philadelphia, or New York. [The information is definite and more emphatic.]

GENERAL AND ABSTRACT: Honesty is not objective, but subjective. [Both vague and unemphatic.]

MORE SPECIFIC: Honesty is not objective, but subjective. It con-

sists, not in paying hard cash for one's meat or overcoat, but in having the purpose to do right without thought of the policeman's club or the neighbors' tongues.

GENERAL: A "modernistic" radio looks like a parked car.

SPECIFIC AND CONCRETE: Complete with stream-lined chassis, fluted vents, and possibly a chromium bumper, a "modernistic" radio looks like a parked car.

GENERAL: The story has interesting details.

SPECIFIC AND CONCRETE: In "The Devil and Daniel Webster" Benét uses details imaginatively. Satan, for example, carries under his arm a prison for snared souls. It is a black lacquered box with tiny air holes punched in the lid. [The sensory details are sharp.]

GENERAL: I liked to watch the servant girl as she moved about the kitchen, preparing our morning repast.

SPECIFIC AND CONCRETE: I liked to watch Norah as she fried our crisp breakfast bacon and browned our buckwheat cakes. [Concrete details are especially important when, as in narrative, the purpose of writing is to recreate experience. They must in every case, of course, be relevant details.]

EXERCISE

1. The population of our state is diversified.
2. A bird drew my attention.
3. Private means of transportation have changed.
4. The store window was full of footwear.
5. Anticipation differs from realization.

THE WEAK PASSIVE VOICE

- 46. Use the active voice unless there is a reason for doing otherwise.**

WEAK: Your gift is appreciated by me. [Wordy and indirect.]

BETTER: I appreciate your gift.

WEAK: The train was seen speeding toward us. [Vague and indirect. Who saw the train?]

BETTER: We saw the train speeding toward us.

WEAK: The election was carried by Jackson, and sweeping new appointments were made by him, and thus was begun the "spoils system" complained of by so many people. [Everything is left-handed.]

MORE VIGOROUS: When Jackson had carried the election, he made sweeping new appointments. Thus the notorious "spoils system" began.

SEMI-DANGLING PARTICIPLE: Having climbed the pole, a wire is attached to the top by the linesman. [By changing to the weak passive the writer has introduced a new subject and allowed the participle to make a false connection.]

CORRECT: Having climbed the pole, the linesman attaches a wire to the top.

NOTE.—The passive voice may be used deliberately to show that the actors are vague ("A flare was sent up from the distant ship"), or to show that a person or thing did not act independently ("A newsboy entered the restaurant and was ordered out").

EXERCISE

1. His own way was earned by Justice Douglas.
2. Your letter has been answered by me.
3. When a successful engine had been made by Watt, it was imitated by other inventors.
4. Before swimming the channel, a coat of grease was applied to her.
5. Called at night, his fees are very high.

EFFECTIVE REPETITION

47. Repeat words or constructions when so doing makes expression natural or emphatic. Do not let fear of repetition lead to the use of heavy or inexact synonyms. (For repetition as an aid to clearness see §§ 2 and 36.)

NATURAL REPETITION OF A WORD: When she talks, she talks [not *speaks*].

NATURAL REPETITION IN A CONTRAST: Leonardo has given a strange smile to La Gioconda. In the whole history of painting what other smile [not *happy expression*] has provoked so much discussion?

NATURAL REPETITION OF A TECHNICAL TERM: It used to be said that poetry in the eighteenth century was confined to one form, the heroic couplet, but we now know that the rule of the heroic couplet [not *rhymed iambic pentameters*] was not absolute.

NATURAL REPETITION IN COORDINATING IDEAS: The siege of Liège lasted three days; the siege of Verdun three years [not *Verdun was besieged for three years*].

WEAK AVOIDANCE OF REPETITION: A penny saved is money made.

EMPHATIC: A penny saved is a penny earned.

FAIRLY EMPHATIC REPETITION OF AN IDEA: He works and toils and labors, but he seems never to get anywhere.

VERY EMPHATIC REPETITION OF IDEA AND WORD: Work, work, work, all he does is work, and still he seems never to get anywhere.

EMPHATIC REPETITION OF A CONSTRUCTION: Living happily is very much a matter of becoming uncritical about things and people, a matter of becoming used to them as they are.

EMPHATIC REPETITION OF A SENTENCE PATTERN: In 1859 Wagner made public his views on art. In 1859 Darwin published what was to be called the theory of evolution. In 1859 Marx prophesied the class struggle. It was a red-letter year.

CONFUSED AND UNEMPHATIC: Doberman pinschers are gentle with people they know. Little children may abuse them. They make excellent house dogs. With intruders they are ferocious. Any burglar will get the scare of his life

CLEAR AND EMPHATIC: Doberman pinschers make excellent house dogs. Dobermans are gentle with people they know; they will take abuse from little children. Yet Dobermans are ferocious with intruders; they will give a burglar the scare of his life. [By altering the order of the sentences and of the sentence elements, it has been possible to get transitions and balance through repetition.]

EXERCISE

1. If he says he will do a thing, he will perform it.
2. I noticed her eyes. She had black hair and an olive complexion, but her orbs were light blue.
3. July 4 is the day for celebrating American independence, the French Revolution being commemorated on July 14.
4. The announcer would often repeat, "Calling all cars!"
5. The big airlines provide many services. The passenger is supplied by them with something to read and something to eat, and, if he needs it, medicine is given him.

OFFENSIVE REPETITION

- 48. Do not repeat words or constructions carelessly. By appropriate use of sentence variety, give interest and point to your writing.**

1. Repetition of words cured by the use of pronouns ¹

BAD: The *Law Building*, the *Commerce Building*, and the *Science Building* are close together. The *Commerce Build-*

¹ In using this method, take care that the reference of the pronouns is clear.

ing is south of the *Law Building*, and the *Science Building* is south of the *Commerce Building*. The *Law Building* is old and dilapidated. The *Commerce Building* is a red brick building, trimmed in terracotta. The *Science Building* resembles the *Commerce Building*.

RIGHT: The Law, Commerce, and Science Buildings are close together in a row. *The first of these* is old and dilapidated. South of it stands the Commerce Building, *which* resembles the Science Building because both are constructed of red brick with terracotta trimmings.

2. Repetition of words cured by rearranging and condensing

BAD REPETITION OF NOUNS: The *autumn* is my favorite of all the *seasons*. Although *autumn* in the city is not such a pleasant *season* as *autumn* in the country, yet even in the *city* my preference will always be for the *autumn*.

RIGHT: My favorite season is autumn. I like it best in the country, but even in the city it is the best time of the year.

3. Repetition of constructions cured by varying the length of the sentences

BAD: The city of the future will be small. Its population will not exceed ninety thousand. There will be plenty of land. Skyscrapers will be unnecessary. Business buildings and factories will not be crowded together. They will be well distributed throughout the city. They will be screened by parks from the homes around them. There will be no traffic problem.

RIGHT: The city of the future will be small. Because its population will not exceed ninety thousand and there will be plenty of land, skyscrapers will be unnecessary. Instead of being crowded together, business buildings and factories will be well distributed throughout the city and screened by parks from the homes around them. There will be no traffic problem.

4. Repetition of constructions cured by varying the beginnings of sentences ¹

BAD: The drive-in used to be a plain roadside stand. The menu was hot dogs and pop. Patrons multiplied. "Specials" and a parking system were added. The stand took the shape of a merry-go-round. An atmosphere of neon lights and pretty girls was provided. The drive-in is now a complete hamburger palace

RIGHT: The drive-in used to be a plain roadside stand with a menu of hot dogs and pop. When patrons multiplied, "specials" and a parking system were added. Inevitably the stand took the shape of a merry-go-round. Now, complete with neon lights and pretty girls, the drive-in is a hamburger palace.

5. Repetition of constructions cured by avoiding similar compound sentences

BAD: Ring was a sheep dog, and he tended the flocks with his master. One day there came a deep snow, and the flock did not return. They found the herder frozen stiff, and the dog was shivering beside him. [Break up the monotonous structural pattern by introducing simple sentences, subordinate clauses, and prepositional and verbal phrases.]

RIGHT: Ring was a sheep dog, and tended the flock with his master. One day there came a deep snow. When the flock failed to return, the men became uneasy, and began a search. They found the herder frozen stiff, with the dog shivering beside him.

6. Repetition of constructions cured by an occasional change from loose to periodic or balanced structure (see §§ 43 and 44).

¹ Do not allow too many sentences in close succession to begin with the subject, or with a time clause, or with a participle. Occasionally use a prepositional phrase or some other adverbial modifier before the subject. But beware of artificial word order.

MONOTONOUS: I stood on the crest of Tunbridge Hill. I saw on the southern horizon a dense wood, which, in the evening sunlight, was veiled in purple haze [Loose]. On the left was the village, the houses appearing like specks in the distance [Loose]. Nearer on the right was the creek, winding through the willows [Loose]. The creek approached nearer until it reached the dam, over which it rushed tumultuously [Loose]. Near by was a thicket of tall trees, through which I could see the white tents of my fellow campers, and their glowing camp fires [Loose].

RIGHT: Far south from Tunbridge Hill, on the dim horizon, I saw, veiled in the evening haze, a dense wood [Periodic, long, conveying the idea of distance better than a loose sentence]. On my left stood the village, the houses like specks; on my right wound the creek, nearer and nearer through the willows [Balanced]. The creek advanced by slow sinuous turns, until, reaching the dam, it plunged over tumultuously [Loose]. Through a thicket of tall trees, near at hand, I could see the white tents of my fellow campers, and their glowing camp fires [Periodic through the middle of the sentence; then loose].

7. Repetition of constructions cured by occasional use of question, exclamation, or direct quotation

VARIED: There is no set length for a paragraph. It should be extensive enough to convey the thought it is intended to convey, and no more. Do you recall what Lincoln said when he was asked how long a man's legs should be? "Long enough to reach the ground!"

8. Repetition of constructions cured by shunning overuse of adjectives and adverbs

ADJECTIVES OVERDONE: The tall, stately poplars thrashed around in the rough, wild wind. [Avoid the habit of using adjectives in pairs or triplets.]

IMPROVED: The tall poplars thrashed around in the wind.
 [Or] The wind thrashed the tall poplars.

9. Repetition of jingles, rhymes, or echoed sounds to be avoided

SOUNDS REPEATED UNPLEASANTLY: Please see if these are the seats we reserved.

BETTER: Please find out whether the seats are the ones we reserved.

SYLLABLES REPEATED AND RHYME INTRODUCED: The curtain rising slowly and the audience cheering loudly, the acrobats, in dressing gowns, stepped out of the wings proudly. [The participles in *-ing* and the adverbs in *-ly* create a jingle. The rhyme is more noticeable because *loudly* and *proudly* have prominent positions in the sentence.]

IMPROVED: As the curtain rose and cheers rang out, the acrobats, in dressing gowns, stepped proudly from the wings.

EXERCISE

1. Jean poured half the bottle of milk from the quart bottle into the pint bottle, leaving just enough milk in the quart bottle for tomorrow's needs.
2. The superintendent has come up the hard way. He used to be a hard coal miner.
3. The brand of tobacco used is responsible to some extent for the taste of the tobacco, but the quality of the pipe used is also responsible to some extent.
4. When he hurt himself, he did not realize that he had done it or that he was badly hurt or he would have called a doctor for himself.
5. The clean white table in the fresh, sunny room makes a bright, appealing picture.
6. Suzanne heard the kitchen door slam. She hastily dressed. The kitchen was warm when she entered. The huge black kettle resisted her fingers. She tipped over the coffee pot. She burned her hands in her attempt to right it.

7. He seemed to happen to have no desire to work.
8. This done, we grease the pan. This done, we cut out the cookies.
9. Sometimes we sell refreshments at these dances. We hear the music stop. Back to the counter we rush and begin selling. For ten minutes we are busy. Then the music starts again. We return to our partners.
10. Emerson read oriental philosophy, and he was in touch with German philosophy. He read widely, but he did not read methodically. His ideas were shaped when he was young, and they were not essentially changed afterwards.

49.

REVIEW OF EMPHASIS

A. LACK OF EMPHASIS IN GENERAL

Make the following sentences emphatic.

1. The period is often misused, too.
2. I also noticed the grass, which was brown, but it will soon turn green again.
3. There are millions of eggs in the sea, and few of them ever become fish.
4. Hubert mounted the platform and waited for silence and began his address.
5. We have arrived at a misunderstanding, it appears.
6. I have finally achieved my ambition to own a good pipe, and now I have a Dunhill.
7. A "willing suspension of disbelief" is what one should practice in reading poetry, Coleridge says.
8. The town fell after a week of fighting.
9. If I may say so, the child labor cause needs all the help it can get.
10. He stepped to the plate and the first ball was thrown, which he knocked to the outfield.
11. At the heels of his mistress, the tiny but animated dog followed on a leash.

12. The book was not to be found, greatly to my disappointment.
13. He caught sight of a tall man with long, uncombed hair in the mirror between the windows.
14. The captain shouted, "Halt!" having noticed a suspicious movement of the hedge.
15. She saw one of the two planes tumbling to earth out of a clear sky, along with the other.
16. There are seventeen uses for the semicolon, in Barney's opinion.
17. Aliens are allowed to sue and be sued, by the law of nations.
18. The cook beats the eggs, thus making the omelet very light.
19. His voice became deep-sounding and authoritative with but slight modulation.
20. Receiving letters is not an unmixed blessing, for the more we receive the more we have to answer.
21. I was walking down Grand Avenue when I saw a parade.
22. He was a sour, irritable old man, and we were afraid to go near him.
23. However, we were able to stay afloat by clinging to the canoe firmly.
24. Football has changed much in the last few years because of the adoption of better rules, although there is still room for improvement.
25. I went to the circus and the seat I had was good, yet I did not like the performance, and I do not care to go again, but I probably shall.

B. LACK OF SUSPENSE OR CLIMAX

Make the following sentences more emphatic by throwing them into periodic form or the order of climax.

1. I'll come back tomorrow, seeing that you are busy now.
2. The navy had retired a cruiser, a battleship, and two destroyers.
3. Her smile perplexed him, contrasted with her words.

4. *The audience sighs with relief when the trapeze act is over.*
5. *His account is so vivid that you feel the dog's hot breath and you are being pursued.*
6. *The speech came to the point; it was not wordy.*
7. *On sale you will find bath towels, hand towels, and face cloths at half cost.*
8. *One car is completely burned and the other is damaged.*
9. *Mrs. Kearn shook Willy, while talking to him.*
10. *During his political career he has held the office of state senator, police magistrate, and member of congress.*
11. *A word does not call attention to itself when it is well used.*
12. *The expedition discovered a priceless carving, which was underneath a heap of rubbish.*
13. *Illinois lost the game, although it outgained Michigan.*
14. *In writing a paper, take care to express your ideas clearly, to collect all the facts, and to organize them well.*
15. *Although the airplane fabric was durable, light, and odorless, it would not hold its shape.*
16. *The house is overgrown with vines, and there are weeds in the garden.*
17. *O'Neill's one-act plays are dramatic, they have atmosphere, and they are, therefore, interesting.*
18. *He has two hobbies—collecting firearms and growing roses.*
19. *Doctors have found that artificial fever is a cure for certain infections, after a careful study.*
20. *He made a record trip around the world, starting from LaGuardia Field.*

C. LACK OF PARALLELISM OR OF ACTIVE PREDICATION

Some of the following sentences are weak because similar elements within them lack similar structure. Some are weak because they employ the passive rather than the active voice. Make all sentences more emphatic.

1. Although he has few enemies, he is liked by a big majority.
2. John relied on strength; strategy was William's method.
3. The clinic treats diseases of the nose and throat, and preference is given to charity cases.
4. Having been newly planted, please keep off the lawn.
5. The reader of the directions must be enabled to understand how the model can be built by him.
6. Pine burns easily, but more heat comes from oak.
7. A history has to stick to the facts, as is not the case with a historical novel, which can alter them.
8. The post office department issues anniversary stamps, and the invention of the steamboat will be honored by one.
9. Having caught no fish, fresh bait is tried by the angler.
10. Some people rate Yellowstone first among the national parks, whereas to other people it belongs second or third.
11. They returned to the cabin, where provisions had already been stored by them.
12. Having been eaten, a boa digests its meal slowly.
13. Unless the hogs are clean, a prize will not be won.
14. A description may follow one of a number of plans. It may go from near to far, from left to right, from center to circumference, from right to left, from far to near, from circumference to center
15. The health of a policeman must be excellent. A policeman must know something about first aid. Criminology is another subject which must be familiar to him.

D. LACK OF SPECIFIC STATEMENTS OR CONCRETE DETAILS

The following sentences are too general or abstract. Make them more emphatic by substituting or adding specific statements or concrete details.

1. The vegetation seems ample.
2. People gather to observe a steam shovel in operation.

3. On the counter were numerous toys.
4. Inattention contributes to traffic difficulties.
5. We had an unusual day.
6. Perseverance is essential to success.
7. The railroad employee perused the timetable.
8. Excitement reigned.
9. There are many fruits in season.
10. His egotism is evident.

E. THE PROBLEM OF REPETITION

Some of the following sentences would be more emphatic if they employed repetition. Others would be more emphatic if they avoided it. Write each of the sentences in its most effective form.

1. The desert has a peculiar beauty—the loveliness of rocks and dunes and sagebrush.
2. It was Vivian who said it was a mile from camp.
3. As the months pass, he gets more into debt.
4. The butcher sells chickens. He also sells rabbits. He has relishes for sale, too.
5. I took great care in breaking in my pipe, and I felt as though I had lost an old friend when I broke it.
6. He slipped and, falling, he fell to the ground.
7. Nothing succeeds like achievement.
8. Holbein painted hands skillfully. Notice how well he has done the extremities in the portrait of Erasmus.
9. Have you ever seen his house? There are books in the library, in the bedroom, and in the dining room.
10. When I go away for a rest, I want inactivity.
11. She refused his first proposal of marriage, and his second was also met with refusal.
12. In 1564 Michelangelo died. That was the year Shakespeare was born. The date links two great masters.

13. We could hear a bellboy say, up and down the lobby, "Paging Mr. Burton!"
14. Before the invention of the microscope little was known about bacteria. Men guessed, but in order to find the facts they had to wait for this instrument.
15. She talks of nothing but bridge.
16. I keep a small amount of money at the First Savings Bank, but my account does not amount to much.
17. A bumper jack is easy to work if it is placed with its stand under it and it is vertical to its stand.
18. Once monks spent hours to inscribe manuscripts and later these same manuscripts were not treated as manuscripts but were used to kindle fires.
19. The service station has six pumps. The hoses for water and the hoses for air are alongside these pumps. The hydraulic lift is behind the station.
20. Loretta had large brown eyes and a small, smart nose. She wore a starched white apron over a light blue frock.
21. Bowling has grown in popularity. Women and children bowl now Bowling alleys, being air-conditioned, stay open in summer. They have been modernized for the bowler in every way.
22. The factory keeps going many consecutive nights.
23. In his imagining, he was again wearing a stocking cap and sliding and coasting and skating.
24. Cooper wrote novels of adventure, and he also wrote novels of manners. He used many different settings, but the "American wilderness" was his favorite. He gave ample descriptions, and he did not neglect action.
25. The other campers had had fish for supper that night, and no one wanted to do the dishes because everyone knew how disagreeable the dishes would be to wash because of the fish. Well, we four girls who had been rowing did the dishes, but it was not because we wanted to do them.



Grammar



GRAMMAR

Grammar has to do with the forms and functions of words related in sentences. A familiarity with grammar helps us to select from the possible forms (case, number, tense, etc.) of a word the form suitable to the context in which the word is being used.

CASE

Case is the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words in the sentence (whether subject, object, etc.) as shown by inflectional form or position.

Father and *I* go hunting. [Nominative case, subject of *go*.]

It was only father and *I*. [Nominative case, predicate pronoun.]

They invited father and *me*. [Objective case, object of *invited*.]

No one went except father and *me*. [Objective case, object of *except*.]

Father's suit and *mine* [or *my* suit] are new. [Possessive case.]

Note that the noun *father* is unchanged except in the possessive, whereas the pronoun *I* changes to *me* or *mine*. Nouns show no change of form except in the possessive (genitive), but pronouns may have different nominative and objective forms, thus:

NOMINATIVE: I we he she they who

OBJECTIVE: me us him her them whom .

THE POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

50a. Personal pronouns form the possessive without an apostrophe.

his, hers, yours, ours, theirs, its owner [not *it's*], whose [not *who's* or *who'se*]

The machine does *its* work well. [*It's* would mean *It is*.]

I met the man *whose* dog this is. [*Who's* would mean *who is*.
Who'se would be a misspelling of *whose*.]

Nouns naming inanimate objects generally show possession by of

the management of the farm [not the farm's management]
the lining of the stomach [not the stomach's lining]

except in idioms expressing time, measure, or personification.

TIME	MEASURE	PERSONIFICATION
the day's work	a dollar's worth	for mercy's sake
two years' wages	two dollars' worth	the heart's desire
a month's notice	a cable's length	the world's progress

Nouns naming persons (or other living things) generally show possession by an apostrophe or an apostrophe and a. Take three steps:

1. Find the base form—whatever does the possessing. (To do this suppose the possessive to be an *of* phrase: hat of a *man*, hats of *men*, of *children*, of *ladies*. Whether the word is singular or plural makes no difference.)
2. Add an apostrophe to the base (*man'*, *men'*, *children'*, *ladies'*).

3. If the base already ends in *s* add nothing more; if not, add *s* (man's hat, men's hats, boy's, boys', one's, children's, ladies').

NOTE 1.—The rule gives us *Keats'* poems, *Dickens'* novels. These forms are correct. But most persons prefer to add an extra *s* to monosyllabic names, and to all other names whenever an extra sound is used in pronouncing the word (*Keats's*, *Dickens's*, *Jones's*, *Thomas's*).

NOTE 2.—In formal writing, a noun or pronoun introducing a gerund¹ should regularly be in the possessive case.¹

Is there any criticism of *Arthur's* going? [Not *Arthur*]

I had not heard of *his* being sick. [Not *him* being sick.]

Have you heard of *Edzell's* buying a rifle? [Not *Edzell*.]

I caught sight of *him* buying a rifle. [The objective is used when the emphasis falls unmistakably upon the noun or pronoun rather than upon the verbal. But when the emphasis falls thus, the verbal modifies the noun or pronoun, and is a participle, not a gerund.]

THE NOMINATIVE CASE OF PRONOUNS

Nominative: I we he she they who

- b. Subjects and predicate pronouns are in the nominative case.²

¹ In informal English the tendency is to use the objective case for nouns and the possessive case for pronouns

² Give an appositive pronoun the case of its antecedent.

We three boys, Harold and Jim and *I*, started for the store. [Both pronouns are nominative.]

They gave dimes to the *youngest*, Harold and *me*. [Objective.]

Let's you and *me* go. [Objective.]

SUBJECT NOMINATIVE: *He* and *I* ate it. *We* boys ate it.

PREDICATE NOMINATIVE: It was Tom and *I*. It was *we*.

It was *he*. Was it *she*? Was it *they*?

The happiest people there were *he* and his mother.

Be never takes an object. In all its forms (*is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, etc.) *be* takes the same case after it as before.

NOTE 1.—The “assumed subject” of the infinitive *to be* is in the objective case.

They were expecting me to write.

Whom did you take *him* to be? [= You did take *him* to be *whom*? *Him* is the “assumed subject” of the infinitive *to be*.

Whom agrees with *him*.]

NOTE 2.—In speech anticipatory *who* is usually allowable, even where the correct grammatical form is *whom*, since we cannot always know how our sentence is to end.

ALLOWABLE ON THE COLLOQUIAL LEVEL: *Who* did you see in New York?

THE OBJECTIVE CASE OF PRONOUNS

Objective: *me us him her them whom*

C. The object of a preposition or a verb or a verbal (participle, gerund, or infinitive) is in the objective case.

Some of *us* fellows went fishing. [Not Some of *we* fellows.]

Such conduct disgusts you and *me*. [Not disgusts you and *I*.]

I heard of his leaving you and *her* a fortune. [Not you and *she*.]

Between you and *me*, I'm hungry. [Not Between you and *I*.]

To determine the case of doubles try each word separately.

They saw Brown and *me*. [Not Brown and *I*. Take the words

separately: They saw Brown. They saw *me*. They saw Brown and *me*.]

The election affects both *them* and *us*. [Affects *them*. Affects *us*.]

All stayed except Tom and *me*. [Except Tom. Except *me*.]

The Case of a Pronoun in a Subordinate Clause

d. Give every subordinate clause a subject in the nominative.

The case of a pronoun depends on its use as subject, object, etc., in its own clause, and is independent of the case of its antecedent.

Do not be misled by an elliptic clause after than or as.

He is taller than *she* [is]. [Not *her*. After *than* or *as* use the pronoun which would be used if the clause were completed.]

Are they as old as *we* [are]? [Not *us*. Before judging the case of a pronoun supply the understood verb.]

Do not be misled by a clause-object after a verb or a preposition.

Punish *whoever* is guilty. [Not *whomever*. The object of *punish* is the entire clause *whoever is guilty*. The case of a pronoun depends entirely upon its use in its own clause.]

The mystery as to *who* had rendered him this service remained. [Not *whom*. *Who* must stand as the subject of *had rendered*. The object of the preposition *to* is the clause *who had rendered him this service*.]

Do not be misled by interrupters like he says or they believed.

The man *who* they believed was the cause of the trouble left town. [Not *whom*. *They believed* is parenthetic. *Who* is the subject of *was*.]

Who do you suppose made us a visit? [Not *whom*.]

NOTE.—Sometimes a subordinate clause requires a pronoun in the objective case.

It jolted Ben harder than *me* [= than it did *me*].

It's no more for them than *us* [= than it is for *us*].

I'll punish you as much as *him*.

Notify *whomever* you see.

His uncertainty as to *whom* he had spoken with was maddening.

EXERCISE

A. Insert apostrophes where they are needed.

1. Can you tell yours from hers?
2. In a years time he drove forty thousand miles.
3. In five years time the machine has paid for itself.
4. Its not easy to decide whose fault it was.
5. This newspaper is theirs, not ours.
6. Voss's jump was higher than Halls.
7. I am invited to my only brothers for dinner.
8. Would you approve of all the Americas forming a union?
9. The agent tested Black, the grocers, scales.
10. "Yours truly" is a correct form in business letters.

B. Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. How shall I know that it is (he, him)?
2. If you hear people quarreling, it will be (they, them).
3. They supposed you to be (I, me).
4. You wanted (we, us) and his brother to go.
5. The best spellers were Louise and (she, her).

C. Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. It's up to (we, us) three.
2. The puzzle was solved by Sam and (I, me).
3. The driver gave his brother and (he, him) a lift.
4. A few of (we, us) girls brought our lunch.
5. Nobody believed it except Jefferson and (he, him).

CASE



6. This happened to Henry and (I, me).
7. He took the word of (they, them) who saw it.
8. The judges divided the prize between Jane and (she, her).
9. I've never met the person (who, whom) you mention.
10. None of (we, us) sailors can swim.

D. Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. He did a little writing (hissself, himself).
2. The friend (who, whom) I was to meet was late.
3. (We, Us) sisters can sing a duet.
4. The author gently prods (we, us) civilized people who tolerate injustice.
5. An argument took place as to (who, whom) was to bell the cat.
6. Two of us, Tom and (I, me), were singled out.
7. Have you any suggestions as to (who, whom) we should elect?
8. The man (who, whom) you believed, was trustworthy.
9. The man (who, whom) you believed was trustworthy, really was.
10. The man (who, whom) you believed I trusted, was trustworthy.

E. Strike out the incorrect forms. Supply in brackets the words that are "understood."

1. Be sure to bring (whoever, whomever) you want.
2. I am just as sleepy as (he, him).
3. A bonus will be given to (whoever, whomever) sells the most cars.
4. Martha seems taller than (she, her).
5. He is friendly with (whoever, whomever) he meets.
6. He is friendly with (whoever, whomever) meets him.
7. The new taxes are harder on you than (I, me).
8. Speak to (whoever, whomever) you are placed next to.
9. They are harder to please than (we, us).
10. Only three stayed—Pauline, Mary, and (I, me).

AGREEMENT OF A PRONOUN WITH ITS ANTECEDENT

A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun. The noun for which the pronoun stands is called the antecedent. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person.

- 51a.** Each, any, every, no one, body, thing are singular. The pronouns each and one are singular; either and neither (except when they refer to plural sets) are singular.

Everybody did *his* best. [Not *their*.]

Every one [Each one, No one] raised *his* hand. [Not *their*.]

Each [Every, Neither, No] person must pay *his* way. [Not *their*.]

A teacher must keep *his* [not *their*] temper. Otherwise *he* [not *they*] cannot control his pupils.

Neither [the Spanish nor the French] *speak* a Teutonic language. [Not *speaks*.]

NOTE.—The nouns *kind* and *sort* are singular; in formal writing, the adjectives *this* and *that* must agree with them.

I like *that kind* of scissors. [Not the plural *those*.]

I hate *this sort* of trousers. [Not the plural *these*.]

- b.** Both, few, many, others, several are plural. None, all, more, most, such may be singular or plural.

Both [Few, Many, Others] know *their* business.

Most of *this* is mine. Most of *these* fade.

- c.** A collective noun regularly takes a singular pronoun.

The committee has given *its* report. [Acting as a unit.]

Our team has played *its* last game.

NOTE.—If the persons or objects denoted by the collective noun are thought of as separate individuals, a plural pronoun is called for: "The jury disagree." It is better, however, to substitute for the collective noun: "The jurors disagree."

EXERCISE

1. Every road has their turning.
2. Neither of the boys are home.
3. I want a dozen of those kind of cookies.
4. Each case must be studied by themselves.
5. Everybody should mind their own business.
6. If either of you are interested, read the book.
7. A person will have their faults.
8. Any stranger could find their way.
9. Those sort of delivery trucks are used by dairies.
10. One has to keep their wits.
11. Do you believe that each should be for themselves?
12. There's nobody that wouldn't prefer their customary ways.
13. Neither James nor Stanley took their topcoat with them.
14. We expect to raise those kind of sheep.
15. The Supreme Court handed down their decision.

AGREEMENT OF A VERB WITH ITS SUBJECT

- 52a. A verb agrees in number with its subject. Do not be misled by (1) an intervening noun, (2) the adverb there, or (3) a predicate noun or pronoun.

The size of the plantations *varies*. [Not *vary*.]

The prices of grain *fluctuate* in response to the demand. [Not *fluctuates*.]

There *are* good grounds for the decision. [Do not begin a sentence with *There is* unless the subject (which follows) is singular.]

The weak point in the team *was* the fielders. [Not *were*.]

NOTE.—The number of the verb is not affected by the addition to the subject of words introduced by *with*, *together with*, *no less than*, *as well as*, and the like. If such sentences sound awkward in the correct form, recast them.

CORRECT, BUT SOMEWHAT AWKWARD: The mayor of the city, as well as several aldermen, *has* investigated the charges.

IMPROVED: The mayor and several aldermen *have* investigated the charges. [Or] The mayor, after having consulted several aldermen, *has* investigated the charges.

b. Singular subjects joined by or or nor take a singular verb.

A car or a plane *is* required. Neither house nor lot *is* valuable.

Singular subjects joined by and take a plural verb

A car and a plane *are* needed. Both house and lot *are* lost.

unless they (1) are synonyms (the noise and shouting *is* endless), (2) are a logical unit (the horse and cart *is* waiting), or (3) are modified by *each*, *every*, *no*, *many a* (many a man and woman *fails* here).

c. A collective noun (family, crowd, army, etc.) regularly takes a singular verb.¹

The committee *is* ready to give *its* report.

A group of people *is* standing outside.

After some of, none of, a part of, half of, two thirds of, a number of use the singular if the noun following is singular, the plural if the noun following is plural.

¹ If the persons or objects denoted by the collective noun are thought of as separate individuals, a plural noun is called for. "The committee *are* at odds and *have* disbanded and gone to *their* lodgings." "A group of people *are* talking angrily among *themselves*."

Some of their money *was* lost. [The noun after *of* is singular.]

Two thirds of the cattle *were* lost. [Plural.]

- d. Some nouns with plural forms are singular in meaning: *economics, news*. Some are either singular or plural: *athletics, politics*. A designation of a quantity or sum, when considered in itself or as a single thing, is singular.

Mathematics *is* a bugbear to many students.

Five dollars *is* the amount I owe you.

- e. Do not use don't in the third person singular. Use doesn't.

Don't is a contraction of *do not*.

He *doesn't* get up early on Sunday morning. [Not *don't*.]

EXERCISE

Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. The content of the courses (is, are) not difficult.
2. My face as well as my hands (is, are) sooty.
3. Robinson's poetry and Sandburg's (is, are) easily contrasted.
4. There (is, are) buildings going up.
5. Lamb's collection of essays (shows, show) great variety.
6. The upper part of the doors (opens, open).
7. Louisa dances well, (doesn't, don't) she?
8. Five years (is, are) a long time.
9. Economics (is, are) a popular subject.
10. To stand or to sit (is, are) impossible.
11. Each novel centers around a tragic situation the outcome of which (is, are) foreseen.
12. Familiar or even stale (is, are) the story and the theme.
13. Only in an atmosphere of responsibility (does, do) the young learn.
14. Physical characteristics, dress, mental habits—literally everything about the individual—(is, are) described.

15. By this time the crew (was, were) too tired to encourage each other.

ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB

Misuse of Adjective for Adverb

53a. Do not use an adjective in place of an adverb.

He spoke *clearly* and *carefully*. [Not *clear* and *careful*.]
 He *surely* did *well* in his classes. [Not *sure* and *good*.]
 I'm *very* [or *really*] tired. [Not *real* tired.]
 We are *almost* there. [Not *most*.]
 The train must be *somewhat* late. [Not *some*.]
 He ate *more heartily* than the rest of us. [Not *heartier*.]

NOTE 1.—Predicate adjectives show *what kind* of subject:
 This term paper is *good*. The captain stands *firm*. Adverbs
 show the *manner* of an act: This student writes *well*. The
 captain braces his feet *firmly*.

RIGHT: The sun shines *bright* on my old Kentucky home. [Here
 the thought is that the sun which shines is bright.]

RIGHT: He worked *diligently*. [Here the modifier refers to the
 manner of working rather than to the person who works. It
 should therefore be an adverb.]

RIGHT: It stood *immovable*. The shot rang *loud*. He becomes
angry. The woods grow *thick*. They remain *obstinate*. He seems
intelligent.

NOTE 2.—In commands and in certain terse conversational
 phrases the short form of the adverbs *slow*, *quick*, *deep* are
 allowable; elsewhere use the common form ending in *-ly*.

Drive *slow*. We drove *slowly* along while the sun set.
 Come *quick*. We got out as *quickly* as we could.

Choosing between Adverb and Predicate Adjective after Sensory Verbs

- b. After a verb pertaining to the senses, look, sound, taste, smell, feel, an adjective is used unless the verb expresses action.

She looks beautiful. She looks at him critically.

The dinner bell sounds good. He sounds the horn angrily.

My food tastes bad. He tastes the soup gingerly.

That flower smells bad. She sniffs the air suspiciously.

I feel good [in good spirits]. I feel the cloth carefully.

I feel well [in good health. An adjectival use of well].

I feel bad [in bad health or spirits. "I feel badly" is acceptable, but less desirable. It suggests the meaning "My sense of touch is impaired"].

"Made" Adjectives

- c. Use "made" adjectives with caution.

An outline of socialism [*not* a socialism outline], a knack for developing plots [*not* a plot-developing knack].

EXERCISE

Strike out the incorrect (or less satisfactory) forms.

1. Be sure to drive (cautious, cautiously).
2. Doesn't the hay smell (good, well)?
3. This boy is (real, really) bright.
4. As (near, nearly) as I can find out, dinner will be at six.
5. He did (correct, correctly) to refuse.
6. I feel (proud, proudly) of your record.
7. What do you think of the (education of the blind program, program for educating the blind)?
8. He did (bad, badly) on the test.

9. The ducks are (noisy, noisily) on the pond.
10. She blushed (easy, easily).
11. Hugh ran home as (rapid, rapidly) as possible.
12. How (sweet, sweetly) you look in that dress!
13. If these tomatoes are kept in the refrigerator, they will stay (fresh, freshly).
14. He was (some, somewhat) surprised.
15. The Grand Canyon (sure, surely) is immense.
16. You look (eager, eagerly) to go.
17. He succeeded (moderate, moderately).
18. They fell (deep, deeply) in love.
19. During the tournament, Ronald played (good, well).
20. The ship sank (quick, quickly) out of sight.
21. How (tired, tiredly) I feel.
22. Her voice sounded (sweet, sweetly) to him.
23. There will be (real, really) competition.
24. Mother was (most, almost) overcome by surprise.
25. A debate was held on (a devaluation of the dollar plan, a plan for devaluating the dollar).
26. He is doing (good, well) in his work at the factory.
27. The piano is (bad, badly) out of tune.
28. He will be mourned (deep, deeply) by his friends.
29. The stars appear (bright, brightly) because there's no fog.
30. We approached as (near, nearly) as we could.

OTHER FUNCTIONAL MISFITS

Substitution

54a. Do not assign to one element the functions of another.

PRONOUN MISUSED FOR *there*: They was a dog on the porch.

RIGHT: There was a dog on the porch.

VERB FORM SUBSTITUTED FOR NOUN: She gave me an invite to her party.

RIGHT: She gave me an invitation to her party. [Or] She invited me to her party.

FUNCTIONAL MISFITS

54

INFINITIVE MISUSED FOR GERUND: There is no honor to be on this committee.

RIGHT: There is no honor in being on this committee. [Or] It is no honor to be on this committee.

NOUN FORM SUBSTITUTED FOR VERB: I suspicioned him all along.

RIGHT: I suspected him all along.

PREPOSITION MISUSED FOR CONJUNCTION: He pronounces his words like an Englishman does.

RIGHT: He pronounces his words as an Englishman does.

PHRASE (other than a noun phrase) USED AS A SUBJECT: Built of concrete gave strength to the house.

RIGHT: Built of concrete, the house was strong. [Or] The concrete construction gave the house strength.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE (other than a noun clause) USED AS A SUBJECT: Because the weather was hot spoiled the skating.

RIGHT: Hot weather spoiled the skating. [Or] The fact that the weather was hot spoiled the skating.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE (other than a noun clause) USED AS A PREDICATE NOUN: A car hop is where somebody brings food from a lunch room to customers in their cars.

RIGHT: A car hop is a person who brings food from a lunch room to customers in their cars.

PREDICATION MISUSED FOR NOUN FORM: I stayed away on account of I was sick.

RIGHT: I stayed away on account of sickness. [Or] Being sick, I stayed away.

Omission

- b. Do not omit a word or phrase if the omission forces upon another word or phrase an unnatural use (double capacity).

PREPOSITION: She is interested and considerate of others.

RIGHT: She is interested in others and considerate of them.

CONJUNCTION: Arnold was as fast, if not faster, than any other man on the team.

RIGHT: Arnold was as fast as any other man on the team, if not faster.

NOUN: This is one of the largest, if not the largest, caves in the world.

RIGHT: This is one of the largest caves in the world, if not the largest.

VERB: The company has and will prosecute trespassers.

RIGHT: The company has prosecuted trespassers and will prosecute them. [Or] The company has prosecuted trespassers and it will.

Duplication

c. Do not, in violation of grammar, repeat a term or insert an equivalent term after it. (An appositive of course does not violate grammar. RIGHT: Blake, our agent, will call.)

DOUBLE SUBJECT: George Landon *he* marched in front. [Omit *he*.]

DOUBLE OBJECT: Whatever she tries to do, she does *it* well. [Omit *it*.]

DOUBLE MODIFIER: Hand me that *there* coat hanger. [Omit *there*.]

DOUBLE CONJUNCTION: He resolved that when he could *that* he would. [Omit *that*.]

DOUBLE PRONOUN AND DOUBLE PREPOSITION: It was an agreement to which all of them were parties *to it*. [Omit *to it*.]

DOUBLE NEGATIVE: We couldn't *hardly* see through the mist. [Omit either *n't* or *hardly*.]

EXERCISE

1. Did you get an invite to the dance?
2. Because she could cook is the reason he married her.
3. Flora sang like she had never sung before.

4. The Swiss they have no navy.
5. We couldn't find no muslin nowhere.
6. They was a nail in the soup.
7. Induction is where a general conclusion is derived from a collection of facts.
8. Roland enthuses about his job.
9. The book is in big print, making it easy to read.
10. Our sailing against the wind, we were delayed.
11. Father promised that if it doesn't rain that he will take us to the beach.
12. He is one of the best, if not the best, speakers in the senate.
13. Raised on a farm enables him to understand the farmer's point of view.
14. The directors were acquainted and favorable toward the plan.
15. Whatever you decide, decide it promptly.
16. Because of her sincerity Paula was a person in whom everybody confided in her.
17. This alloy is as hard, if not harder, than any other on the market.
18. His voice trembled on account of he was nervous.
19. I have and will insist on equal rights.
20. Have you read where newspapers are being printed on micro-film?

TENSE AND MODE

55a. Keep to one tense unless there is a reason for changing.

The two boys *built* a raft. Then they *loaded* it with provisions.
[Not *load*. Prefer the past tense for telling a story; then you will not be tempted to shift tense unnecessarily. See § 33.]

Use the tense that indicates relations in time exactly. In dependent clauses and verbal phrases choose a tense suited to the time expressed in the principal verb.

WRONG: I intended to have gone. [The principal verb *intended* indicates a past time. In that past time I intended to do something. What? Did I intend *to go*, or *to have gone*?]

RIGHT: I intended to go.

WRONG: We hoped that you would have come to the party. [The principal verb *hoped* indicates a past time. In that past time our hope was that you *would* come, not that you *would have come*.]

RIGHT: We hoped that you would come.

Present Time

1. Use the present tense for action taking place now, for habitual action, and for an assertion true for all time.

He *hurries* to the office. She always *wears* silk.

He said that Venus *is* a planet. [Not *was*, it still is.]

- Use the present perfect for an action completed before the present (not to indicate a definite point in past time). The auxiliary is *have* or *has*.

He *has completed* all the required courses.

He *completed* the courses last year. [Not *has completed*.]

Past Time

2. Use the past tense to place action in past time.
Use the past perfect to place one past action definitely before another past action. The auxiliary is *had*.

The artist had a cheerful studio which *had been used* as a garage.

In the parlor my cousin kept a collection of animals which he *had shot*. [Not which he *shot*.]

Future Time

3. Use the correct form of the future tense to place action in future time. The auxiliaries are *shall* and *will*. Use the future perfect to emphasize the idea of completeness before a future time. The auxiliaries are *shall have* and *will have*.

I *shall* probably *arrive* on Monday. I *shall have completed* the work by the first of June.

Shall and Will, Should and Would¹

To express simple futurity or mere expectation, use shall with the first person (both singular and plural) and will with the second and third.

I *shall* go.

We *shall* walk.

You *will* play.

You *will* hear.

He *will* sing.

They *will* reply.

To express determination (on the speaker's part) reverse the usage; that is, use will with the first person (both singular and plural), and shall with the second and third.

I *will*, I tell you, I *will*.

We *will* not be excluded.

You *shall* do what I bid.

You *shall* not delay us.

He *shall* obey me.

They *shall* pay the tribute.

To express willingness or determination of the person acting use *will* with all persons.

You *will* play with fire, *will* you?

Do that? He simply *will* not.

¹ Informal English tends to replace *shall* by *will* in all persons and uses with the exception of the first person singular in questions. It employs *should* to express obligation and *would* to express willingness.

In asking questions, use the form expected in the answer.

"*Shall* I go?" I asked myself. "*Shall* we take a walk?" "You promise. But *will* you pay?" "*Will* it rain tomorrow?"

Should and *would* follow the rules given for *shall* and *will*.

Mere statement of a fact:

I [*or We*] *should* like to go.

You [*or He or They*] *would* of course accept the offer.

Resolution or obligation or duty:

I [*or We*] *would* never go under terms so degrading.

You [*or He or They*] *should* decline; honor demands it.

Should has also a special use in the subjunctive (in all persons) to express a condition; and *would* has a special use (in all persons) to express a wish or a customary action.

If it *should* rain, I shall not go.

If I *should* remain, it would probably clear off.

Would that I could swim!

He [*I, We, You, They*] *would* often sit there by the hour.

b. Keep to one mode unless there is a reason for changing.¹

WRONG: By giving strict obedience to commands, a soldier *learns* discipline, and consequently *would have* steady nerves in time of war. [*Learns* should be followed by *will have*.]

¹ Mode (often called mood) indicates the tone of an assertion—whether affirming, commanding, supposing. The indicative mode asserts. (Dogs *bark*. They *are listening*.) The imperative mode urges or commands. (*Go! Take* your dog out of here.) The subjunctive mode supposes a condition contrary to fact. (I wish I *were* a bird.) By the use of such auxiliaries as *may, can, must, might, could, would, should* one can build various modal forms or modal aspects, sometimes called collectively the potential mode.

WRONG: An automobile *should be* kept in good working order so that its life *is* lengthened. [*Should be* is properly followed by *may be*.]

In telling how to do or make something, definitely assume one of these three points of view and keep it consistently:

(1) The Personal, Indicative Point of View. Tell what you did (past tense) or what you customarily do (present tense), using the pronoun *I*: "First I take . . . Next I prepare . . . Finally I . . ."

(2) The Imperative, Commanding Point of View. Instruct someone: "First take . . . Then prepare . . . Finally do this . . ."

(3) The Impersonal Point of View. Explain what is to be done, what should be done, or what one should do: "The first thing to do is to take . . . The next thing is to prepare . . . The last thing is to . . ."

Do not shift needlessly from one method to the other, as is done in the following outline.

HOW TO LEARN TO DRIVE A CAR

- I. In teaching people to drive I first explain the controls . . .
- II. Next you must . . .
- III. The third step is . . .

The Subjunctive Mode

Use the subjunctive to express a condition contrary to fact.¹

If I *were* president [contrary to fact], I'd veto the bill.

I wish I *were* in his place. [Not the indicative *was*.]

¹ In informal English the subjunctive is often replaced by the indicative.

Use the present subjunctive in parliamentary motions.

I move that the minutes *be* adopted as read.

To express command, necessity, or uncertainty the subjunctive is (ordinarily) used in the subordinate clause.

I command that this *be* [or *shall be*] done. [Command.]

It is necessary that the stock *be* [or *should be*] sold. [Necessity.]

If the report *be* true [or *is* true], we are ruined. [Uncertainty.]

EXERCISE

A. Tense

Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. I learned that rust (is, was) produced by oxidation.
2. We always intended to (call, have called) you.
3. A pilot has to (be, have been) acquainted with the channel in order to avoid the shallows.
4. He (has, had) been marking time until he was able to buy the equipment.
5. I apologize for (being, having been) late on Friday.
6. The spider knew it had only to wait for a chance to sting and the battle (was, would be) over.
7. Everybody believed that the war would (end, have ended) that summer, but it (is, was) continued.
8. The hostess served beans which she (raised, had raised) in the garden.
9. His work is philosophical. His "Ode to Time" (is, was) a poem of great depth.
10. When we were asked to help, we (agreed, had agreed).

B. Shall and Will, Should and Would

Strike out the incorrect forms. If two forms are possible, explain the meaning of each.

1. One dollar (shall, will) be enough, (shall, will) it not?
2. (Should, Would) that we were home!
3. In my place, no doubt you (should, would) send a telegram.
4. Do you think that he (shall, will) give us a test?
5. I (should, would) prefer a chocolate sundae.
6. We (shall, will) take a vacation this August.
7. "We (shall, will) defeat the enemy," he said.
8. "The enemy (shall, will) be defeated," he said.
9. You (should, would) take your time; there's no hurry.
10. You (shall, will) contribute, (shall, will) you not?
11. (Shall, Will) I bring my camera?
12. The children (shall, will) ride in the back seat; otherwise I (shall, will) not go.
13. They (shall, will) have a good time just the same.
14. If there (should, would) not be enough coal, use wood.
15. I never (should, would) accept such treatment.

C. Mode

Make any change needed in the verb to give the correct mode.

1. It was as though a ghost was in the room.
2. I move that the question is to be put to a vote.
3. Whoever takes this course learns about banking laws and would have a chance to be promoted.
4. In times of depression people may grow discontented and they blame their troubles on a racial minority.
5. In order that I might have the tickets in advance, I am writing you now.
6. She looks at the stars as if she is a mystic.
7. For the best results, add B₁. Then you should water frequently.
8. The rules require that you are to be in by ten o'clock.
9. Was he but here, things would be different.
10. We request that we are given a furlough.

PRINCIPAL PARTS; COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

- 56a.** Use the correct form of the past tense and past participle. Never use *come*, *done*, *bursted*, *knowed*, *says* for the past tense; or [*had*] *eat*, [*had*] *froze*, [*have*] *ran*, [*has*] *went*, [*has*] *wrote*, [*are*] *suppose* for the past participle. Memorize the principal parts of difficult verbs. The principal parts are the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle. A good way to recall these is to repeat the formula: Today I *sing*; yesterday I *sang*; often in the past I *have sung*. The principal parts of *sing* are *sing*, *sang*, *sung*.

Forms often confused are *lie* and *lay*, *sit* and *set*, *rise* and *raise*.

Intransitive

lie, lay, lain

Today I *lie* down.
Yesterday I *lay* down.
Often I *have lain* down.

sit, sat, sat

Today I *sit* on the couch.
Yesterday I *sat* on the couch.
Often I *have sat* on the couch.

Transitive

lay, laid, laid

Today I *lay* the book here.
Yesterday I *laid* it here.
Many times I *have laid* it here.
The book *was laid* away [passive].

set, set, set

Today I *set* the lamp here.
Yesterday I *set* the lamp here.
Often I *have set* the lamp here.
The lamp *has been set* here [passive].

Intransitive

rise, rose, risen

Today farmers *rise* early.
Yesterday farmers *rose* early.
Always farmers *have risen* early.

Transitive

raise, raised, raised

Today I *raise* the window.
Yesterday I *raised* the window.
Often I *have raised* the window.
The window *has been raised* [passive].

Other verbs which often cause confusion are these:
come, see, do, go, be, begin, break, drink, freeze, give, lead, ring, run, show, shrink, sing, take, write.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle	Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
am	was	been	bring	brought	brought
ask	asked	asked	burn	burned	burned
attack	attacked	attacked		burnt	burnt
awake	awaked	awaked	burst	burst	burst
	awoke	awoke	catch	caught	caught
bear	bore	borne ¹	choose	chose	chosen
		born	come	came	come
begin	began	begun	deal	dealt	dealt
bend	bent	bent	dive	dived ²	dived
bid	bade	bidden	do	did	done
	bid	bid	drag	dragged	dragged
bite	bit	bitten	draw	drew	drawn
		bit	dream	dreamed	dreamed
bleed	bled	bled		dreamt	dreamt
blow	blew	blown	drink	drank	drunk
break	broke	broken	drive	drove	driven

¹ Note that alternative forms cannot always be interchanged. "The weight could not be borne." "A son was born."

² *Dove* is colloquial.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle	Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
drown	drowned	drowned	lose	lost	lost
dwelt	dwelt	dwelt	mean	meant	meant
	dwelled	dwelled	pay	paid	paid
eat	ate	eaten	prove	proved	proved
fall	fell	fallen	raise	raised	raised
fight	fought	fought	read	read	read
flee	fled	fled	rid	rid	rid
flow	flowed	flowed	ride	rode	ridden
fly	flew	flown	ring	rang *	rung
freeze	froze	frozen	rise	rose	risen
get	got	got *	run	ran	run
give	gave	given	say	said	said
go	went	gone	see	saw	seen
grow	grew	grown	set	set	set
hang	hung	hung	sew	sewed	sewed
hang	hanged	hanged			sewn
(execute)			shake	shook	shaken
hold	held	held	shine	shone	shone
kneel	knelt	knelt		shined	shined
	kneeled	kneeled	show	showed	shown
know	knew	known			showed
lay	laid	laid	shrink	shrank *	shrunk
lead	led	led	sing	sang *	sung
lend	lent	lent	sit	sat	sat
lie	lay	lain	slink	slunk	slunk
(recline)			speak	spoke	spoken
lie	lied	lied	spend	spent	spent
light	lighted	lighted	spit	spat	spat
	lit	lit		spit	spit
loose	loosed	loosed	spring	sprang *	sprung

* Starred words have alternate forms: *gotten, rung, shrunk, sung, sprung, swum*.

Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle	Present Tense	Past Tense	Past Participle
steal	stole	stolen	tread	trod	trodden
swear	swore	sworn			trod
sweep	swept	swept	wake	waked	waked
swim	swam *	swum		woke	
take	took	taken	wear	wore	worn
tear	tore	torn	weave	wove	woven
throw	threw	thrown		weaved	wove
thrust	thrust	thrust	weep	wept	wept
			write	wrote	written

b. Use the correct form for the comparative and superlative degree of adjectives and adverbs.

Ordinarily *-er* or *-r* is added to an adjective (especially a monosyllable) in the positive degree to form the comparative, and *-est* or *-st* to the positive to form the superlative (*brave, braver, bravest*). But most adverbs (since they end in *-ly*), many adjectives of two syllables, and all words of three or more syllables are compared by adding to the positive stem *more* or *less* for the comparative and *most* or *least* for the superlative.

A small number of words compare irregularly or do not permit comparison (absolutes).¹

In some words alternatives are allowable between *-er*, *-est*, and *more, most*. The tendency today is to extend the use of the latter forms.

¹ In informal English the superlative form is sometimes used instead of the comparative ("the *best* of two alternatives"), and absolutes are compared (*deader, deadeast*).

	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
<i>Adjectives</i>	old	older	oldest
	able	abler (more able)	ablest (most able)
	rigid	more rigid	most rigid
	kindly	kindlier (more kindly)	kindest (most kindly)
	beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
	ill	worse	worst unique
<i>Adverbs</i>	soon	sooner	soonest
	quickly ¹	more quickly ¹	most quickly ¹
	rapidly	more rapidly	most rapidly
	well	better	best entirely

EXERCISE

Strike out the incorrect forms.

A. Lie and Lay

1. Be sure to (lie, lay) down and rest.
2. I am going to (lie, lay) the book on the table.
3. The leaf (lay, laid) where it had fallen.
4. He (lies, lays) asleep on the ground.
5. Where have you (lain, laid) the keys?
6. Please (lie, lay) in some supplies.
7. For a week the boat (lay, laid) at anchor.
8. I must have (mislain, mislaid) my watch.
9. What silverware shall I (lie, lay) out?
10. Wherever the dog (lies, lays), he is comfortable.
11. The winter clothes had been (lain, laid) away.
12. You could not (lie, lay) another straw on the pile.
13. If I (lay, laid) still, I heard the mosquito.

¹ Alternate forms: *quick, quicker, quickest.*

14. (Lain, Laid) away on a shelf was the tennis racket.
15. The cows are (lying, laying) down.

B. Sit and Set

1. Be careful when you (sit, set) on that chair.
2. We used to (sit, set) watching the cars go by.
3. I am going to (sit, set) the valise here.
4. Everybody (sat, set) around the fire.
5. (Sit, Set) the bundle down and come in.
6. The benches in the stadium are hard to (sit, set) on.
7. Have you ever (sat, set) in on a bridge game?
8. The last time she (sat, set) the table, she forgot napkins.
9. Leonard is ready to (sit, set) away his books.
10. I wish you would (sit, set) still.
11. The old sofa hasn't been (sat, set) on for years.
12. The old sofa has been (sat, set) in the corner.
13. When children were naughty, they had to (sit, set) in the corner.
14. We enjoy (sitting, setting) where we can watch the conductor.
15. Father (sat, set) his approval to it.

C. Rise and Raise

1. The water level is (rising, raising).
2. Her biscuits (rose, raised) unevenly.
3. A tower (rises, raises) high above the church.
4. He is sure to (rise, raise) at dawn.
5. The whole camp had (rose, risen, raised).

D. Miscellaneous Verb Forms

1. Our strength (begin, begun, began) to give out.
2. Balboa was the first Spaniard who (saw, seen) the Pacific.
3. I'd like to know who (did, done) that.
4. He (run, ran) away to join the circus.
5. A stranger (ask, asked) me where you live.

6. She (give, gave) some old clothes to the poor.
7. After lunch we (shown, showed) him the farm.
8. In the letter he (writ, wrote), he complained.
9. At dinner last night everybody (ate, eat) too much.
10. When I had it, I always (send, sent) some.
11. Were you there when the glee club (sang, sung)?
12. At last the cat (come, came) back.
13. Hamilton was (born, borne) in the West Indies.
14. Have you ever (drank, drunk) goat's milk?
15. Because of the snow, the birds had already (went, gone) south.
16. The enemy (attacked, attacted) at dawn.
17. It was food which had been (stole, stolen).
18. The big wave nearly (drowned, drowneded) her.
19. I (knew, knowed) him very well.
20. A drum major (lead, led) the parade.
21. The picture was (hanged, hung) in a prominent place.
22. The ballast had been (thrown, throwed) overboard.
23. Wilbur quietly (sneaked, snuck) away.
24. What have you (brought, brung) me?
25. Last year we (grew, growed) alfalfa.

E. Comparisons

1. A little knowledge may be (worse, more worse) than none.
2. Compared with what we've had, this plan is (unique, more unique).
3. A pyramid is (thickest, most thick) at the bottom.
4. This island is the (farthermost, most farthermost) boundary.
5. The arrival of the ship was (most little, least) expected.
6. Because you made it, the gift will be (more deeply, deeper) appreciated.
7. Of all the swimmers on the team, Pauline is (most fast, fastest).
8. The second water color seems (more beautiful, beautifuler).
9. Of the two offers yours is (more acceptable, most acceptable).
10. Can you divide the apples (more evenly, evenlier)?

THE PARTS OF SPEECH AND
THEIR USES

The eight parts of speech	{	verb,	
		noun, pronoun,	[= substantives]
		adjective, adverb,	[= modifiers]
		preposition, conjunction, interjection.	[= connectives]

- 57. Know how to determine the part of speech of a word by the work it does in a sentence; note what the word *does* in a sentence before you classify it as a verb, a noun, etc.**

EXAMPLE:

I *drive* ten miles to school. [*Drive* asserts; it is a verb.]

We began a *drive* for new members. [*Drive* names; it is a noun.]

A *drive* shaft hangs from the ceiling. [*Drive* describes; it is an adjective.]

Verbs

A **verb** is a word or word-group which makes an assertion. It usually expresses action (Winds *blow*), but it may express being or mental state (It *is* true. She *sleeps*).

A **transitive verb** is one that requires a receiver of the act (*trans* means "across"; hence *transitive* means "action carried across"):

The donkey *carries* firewood.

An **intransitive verb** is one that does not require a completer:

The actors *are rehearsing* for the play.

The full meaning of a verb depends on the inflectional forms that show voice, mode, and tense.

Voice shows whether the subject performs or receives the action expressed by the verb.

The active voice shows the subject as actor:

Eric *hoisted* the sail.

The passive voice shows the subject as acted upon:

The sails *were hoisted* before the race began.

Mode (also called *mood*) indicates the mood or manner in which the speaker views the action of the verb.

The indicative mode states or questions a fact:

The bell *has not rung*. *Have* you *seen* her?

The subjunctive mode expresses a wish or a condition contrary to fact:

I wish that I *were* there! If I *were* older, I'd be wiser.

The imperative mode expresses a command or an urgent request:

Take notes. *Save* all your papers. *Let* me alone.

Modal auxiliaries (*may, can, must, might, could, would, should, etc.*) are used with other verbs to form modal aspects of the verb. There are as many different aspects as there are auxiliaries. Aspects are sometimes spoken of as separate modes or called collectively the "potential mode."

Tense expresses the time of the action or existence. The tenses are the present, the past, the future (employing the auxiliaries *shall* and *will*), the present perfect (employing *have*), the past perfect (employing *had*), and the future perfect (employing *shall have* and *will have*).

CONJUGATION OF THE VERB SEE

INDICATIVE MODE

ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
Present Tense			
1. I see	we see	I am seen	we are seen
2. you see	you see	you are seen	you are seen
3. he sees	they see	he is seen	they are seen
Past Tense			
1. I saw	we saw	I was seen	we were seen
2. you saw	you saw	you were seen	you were seen
3. he saw	they saw	he was seen	they were seen
Future Tense			
1. I shall see	we shall see	I shall be seen	we shall be seen
2. you will see	you will see	you will be seen	you will be seen
3. he will see	they will see	he will be seen	they will be seen
Present Perfect Tense			
1. I have seen	we have seen	I have been seen	we have been seen
2. you have seen	you have seen	you have been seen	you have been seen
3. he has seen	they have seen	he has been seen	they have been seen
Past Perfect Tense			
1. I had seen	we had seen	I had been seen	we had been seen
2. you had seen	you had seen	you had been seen	you had been seen
3. he had seen	they had seen	he had been seen	they had been seen
Future Perfect Tense (seldom used)			
1. I shall have seen	we shall have seen	I shall have been seen	we shall have been seen
2. you will have seen	you will have seen	you will have been seen	you will have been seen
3. he will have seen	they will have seen	he will have been seen	they will have been seen

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
Present Tense	{ if I, you, he see if we, you, they see	if I, you, he be seen if we, you, they be seen
Past Tense	{ if I, you, he saw if we, you, they saw	if I, you, he were seen if we, you, they were seen
Present Perfect	{ if I, you, he have seen if we, you, they have seen	if I, you, he have been seen if we, you, they have been seen

Nouns and Pronouns (Substantives)

A noun is a name. The uses of a noun are these four: ¹

SUBJECT OF A VERB: The *bank* will close at one o'clock.

OBJECT { OF A VERB: He closed the *banks* for a week.
OF A PREPOSITION: I am going to the *bank* at noon.
OF A VERBAL: Closing the *bank* at noon inconveniences many working people.

PREDICATE NOUN: This building is the *bank*.

APPOSITIVE: He has an account at the County National, the leading *bank* of the town.

Classification. A noun may be *proper* (*Philip Watkins*), or *common*. Common nouns may be *concrete* (*man, windmill*), or *abstract* (*gratitude, nearness*). A noun applied to a group is said to be *collective* (*family, race*).

A *common noun* is one that can be applied to any one of many persons, places, things, acts, ideas: *horse, city, car, war, hunger*.

A *proper noun* is a highly specific name that fits one (and usually *only one*) person, place, thing, act, idea: *Franklin D. Roosevelt*.

¹ By a change of force a word which ordinarily does the work of a noun may be made to do the work of an adjective (the *brick* sidewalk, *Joseph's* coat), or an adverb (John went *home*), or an independent element (*Jehoshaphat*, what an ideal).

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

57

velt, Ohio, a Ford, Interstate Commerce Act, Americans. A proper noun is capitalized.

A concrete noun is a name of something that can be perceived by the senses: *paint, musician, vinegar, violets, velvet.*

An abstract noun is the name of a quality, state, or general idea: *whiteness, smoothness, weight, courage, health, government, peace.*

A pronoun is a substitute for a noun. A noun for which a pronoun stands is called the antecedent.

Politicians promise much, but *they* accomplish little. [*Politicians* is the antecedent of *they*.]

PERSONAL PRONOUNS: *I, you, he, she, it, we, they.*

RELATIVE PRONOUNS: *who, which, that.*

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS: *who, which, what.*

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS: *this, that, these, those.*

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS: *some, any, one, each, either, few, all, both, etc.*

REFLEXIVE OR INTENSIVE PRONOUNS: *I blamed myself. You yourself are at fault.*

The uses of pronouns are in general the same as those of nouns.

In addition, relatives serve as connectives (the man *who* spoke), interrogatives ask questions (*Who* is the man?), and demonstratives point out (*That* is Van Lehr's secretary).

DECLENSION OF PERSONAL PRONOUNS

Person	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	Nominative	Possessive	Objective	Nominative	Possessive	Objective
1	I	my, mine	me	we	our, ours	us
2	you	your, yours	you	you	your, yours	you
3	he, she it	his, her, hers its	him, her it	they	their, theirs	them

Adjectives and Adverbs (Modifiers)

An adjective is a word used to modify a noun or pronoun.

rainy weather *cool-headed* adventurers *red* cherries

When an adjective is used in the predicate to complete the meaning of the verb it is called a **predicate adjective**:

The weather is *rainy*. [*Rainy*, though it stands in the predicate, may still be said to modify and explain the subject *weather*.]

Adjectives are sometimes divided into two classes, **descriptive** and **limiting** (the classification has no great functional value).

Descriptive adjectives tell *what kind*: *gay* colors, *handsome* fellow.

Limiting adjectives tell *what one*: *the* girl, *ten* men, *this* car. Limiting adjectives include articles (*a*, *an*, *the*), numerals (*one*, *two*, *first*, *second*), and pronominals. Pronominals include:

POSSESSIVES: *my* dog, *his* problems, *her*, *its*, *our*, *your*, *their*.

DEMONSTRATIVES: *this* day, *that* page, *these* nuts, *those* pies.

INTERROGATIVES: *whose* dog? *which* car? *what* street?

RELATIVES: one *whose* name I forgot, during *which* time.

INDEFINITES: *each* dog, *any* day, *every*, *some*, *no*.

Adjectives have three forms or **degrees of comparison**. (See § 58 under *Comparison*.)

POSITIVE DEGREE: bright, bad, grateful, careful

COMPARATIVE DEGREE: brighter, worse, more grateful, less careful

SUPERLATIVE DEGREE: brightest, worst, most grateful, least careful

An adverb is a word used to modify a verb or a modifier.

ADVERB MODIFYING A VERB: played *well*, *almost* won.

ADVERB MODIFYING AN ADJECTIVE: *too* clever, *unusually* handsome.

ADVERB MODIFYING AN ADVERB: *very* sternly, *too* eagerly, *almost* there.

More rarely, an adverb may modify a verbal (*Walking fast is good for the health*), or a phrase (*The ship drifted almost into the breakers*), or a subordinate clause (*The messenger came just when we were starting*).

Adverbs answer the questions *When? Where? How? How much?* On the basis of these "adverb questions" it is possible to classify adverbs according to meaning thus: adverbs of time (*now, today, soon, afterward*), place (*here, there, out, indoors*), manner (*courageously, clearly, fast*), degree (*rather, hardly, not, much*). The classification has not much functional value, but it helps one to know what an adverb is.

Adverbs have three forms called **degrees of comparison**: *well, better, best; slowly, more slowly, most slowly*. (See § 58 under *Comparison*.)

Prepositions and Conjunctions (Connectives)

A preposition (literally *pre* = before + *positus* = placed) is a connective that takes hold of a substantive and forms with it a modifying phrase. There are about seventy prepositions in the language. Here are the common ones:

of	from	before
with	over	across
by	under	beneath
for	through	beyond
like	between	beside
to	among	except
at	above	during
on	below	concerning
up	since	owing to
down	about	because of
in	until	in spite of
into	after	

A **prepositional phrase** (a preposition plus its object, sometimes with modifiers) does the work of an adjective or an adverb and never anything else.

a man	<i>without fear</i>	} prepositional phrase used as an adjective
differences	<i>between you and me</i>	
runs	<i>toward the enemy</i>	} prepositional phrase used as an adverb
works	<i>for him and her</i>	

A **conjunction** is a word used to join elements of a sentence and to show the relations between them. A **coordinating conjunction** joins elements of equal rank (words, phrases, or clauses). A **subordinating conjunction** joins a subordinate clause to some other word in the sentence.

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS *and, or, but, for*¹

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS (introducing adverb clauses) *after, as, before, since, till, until, when, whenever, while, where, wherever, because, why, if, unless, than, although, though, that, so that.*

Interjections

An **interjection** is a word *thrown into* speech to express emotion. It has no grammatical connection with other words.
Oh, is that it? Well, I'll do it

EXERCISE

1. Make each of the following words do the work of more than one part of speech. Use complete sentences.

¹ To these four may be added *so* yet *nor* (negative form of *or*). *So* and *yet* are adverbs which are rapidly becoming conjunctions. Adverbs that frequently introduce a coordinate clause are sometimes called **conjunctive adverbs** *then, besides, too, also, moreover, further, indeed, in fact, nevertheless, however, still, only, otherwise, therefore, thus, hence, consequently, accordingly, as a result.*

fall	pay	down
white	long	doubt
stand	little	rattle
judge	south	visit
plan	dark	cut
iron	back	turn
blind	own	sink
forward	will	over
work	row	tune
ship	notice	some
ring	across	

2. Copy the ten sentences of § 58, Exercise A (p. 159), and over each word indicate its part of speech. For example:

<i>art.</i>	<i>adj.</i>	<i>noun</i>	<i>prep.</i>	<i>noun</i>	<i>verb</i>	<i>adv.</i>
The	American	girl	in	business	spends	nearly
<i>noun</i>	<i>prep.</i>	<i>pro.</i>	<i>noun</i>	<i>prep.</i>	<i>noun</i>	
half	of	her	wage	for	clothing.	

The Most Useful Terms of Grammar

The most useful terms of grammar are those that name

the large elements of the sentence { subject, predicate, completer,
modifier, phrase, clause,

and the parts of speech { verb, [= substantives]
noun, pronoun, [= modifiers]
adjective, adverb, [= connectives]
preposition, conjunction,
interjection.

You will know nine tenths of all that is important in grammar when you are able to recognize these elements in any ordinary sentence.

THE TERMS OF GRAMMAR

58. Be able to explain the construction of any part of an ordinary sentence. That is, be able to answer the question "What work does this word or word-group do in the sentence?"

Examples:

1. We lost the trail, Dad.

What is the
construction

What work does it do?

of <i>lost</i> ?	It asserts.	It is a verb.
of <i>We</i> ?	It names the actor.	It is the subject of <i>lost</i> .
of <i>trail</i> ?	It receives the action.	It is the object of <i>lost</i> .
of <i>Dad</i> ?	It is an extra, thrown in.	It has no construction.

2. At noon near timberline we lost the trail
 which we had followed.

What is the
construction

What work does it do?

of <i>At noon</i> ?	It tells when.	It is an adverbial phrase modifying <i>lost</i> .
of <i>near timber- line</i> ?	It tells where.	It is an adverbial phrase modifying <i>lost</i> .
of <i>which we had followed</i> ?	It tells what one.	It is an adjectival clause modifying <i>trail</i> .

3. When we reach timberline we are higher
 than the clouds [verb understood].

What is the
construction

What work does it do?

of <i>When we reach timberline</i> ?	It tells when.	It is an adverbial clause modifying <i>are</i> .
of <i>higher</i> ?	It completes the verb <i>are</i> .	It is a predicate adjective after <i>are</i> .
of <i>than the clouds [verb]</i> ?	It tells how much.	It is an adverbial clause modifying the adject- ive <i>higher</i> .

Any word or word-group in any sentence must do one
of these six kinds of work:

It may be a subject.	It may be a modifier (phrase, clause, adjective, adverb).
It may be a predicate (say <i>verb</i> if you prefer).	It may be a connective (<i>and</i> , <i>or</i> , <i>but</i>).
It may be a complement or completer (object, predicate noun, or predicate adjective).	It may be an independent ele- ment (interjection, etc.).

A knowledge of six constructions will enable you to
explain any ordinary sentence, provided you box off each

phrase or subordinate clause and treat it as if it were a single big word (it will always do the work of a single part of speech). This is the "first stage of grammatical knowledge."

Afterward you learn to *go inside* the phrase or clause and to explain the construction of all the words within it. This is the "second stage of grammatical knowledge." To attain it you need a knowledge of all of the parts of speech.

Absolute expression. See *Independent element*.

Active voice. See *Verb* under § 57.

Antecedent. An antecedent is a noun (or pronoun) to which a pronoun refers.

The *man* who hesitates is lost; the *woman* who hesitates is won. [*Man* is the antecedent of *who*. *Woman* is the antecedent of the second *who*.]

Literally, *antecedent* means *that which goes before*; but sometimes the antecedent follows the dependent word.

Appositive. An appositive is a noun (or its equivalent), often with modifiers, set alongside another noun as a substitute name or equivalent expression. The second name is said to be in *apposition* with the first.

Ronald Custis, *a hard-riding polo player*, bought my father's favorite horse, *Morning Star*. [*Player* is in apposition with *Ronald Custis*, and *Morning Star* is in apposition with *horse*. The entire word-group, *a hard-riding polo player*, is an appositive.]

For the punctuation of appositives see §§ 90 al and 96.

Article. The adjectives *a*, *an*, *the* are called articles. *A* and *an* are called indefinite articles. *The* is called the definite article.

Auxiliary. *Be, have, do, shall, will, ought, may, can, must, might, could, would, should, etc.*, when used as helpers with other verbs, are called auxiliaries. A verb usually consists of one or two words, but may consist of three or four:

sing, has sung, had been singing, should have been sung

Have and *be* are here the "helping verbs" or auxiliaries. *Be* in its various forms (*is, are, was, were*) is used as an auxiliary oftener than any other verb. (See also § 57 under *Verb*.)

Case. Case is the relation of a substantive to other words in the sentence as shown by inflectional form or position. The subject of a verb, or a predicate noun or pronoun after a finite form of the verb *to be*, is in the **nominative case**. The object of a verb or preposition, or the "assumed subject" of an infinitive, is in the **objective case**. A noun or pronoun which denotes possession is in the **possessive case**.

Clause. A clause is a part of a sentence that contains a subject and verb, perhaps with modifiers.

She is a rosy Irish girl	who makes good cherry pies.
The sun tries to shine	after the rain is ended.

Main (independent) Clause	Subordinate (dependent) Clause
---------------------------	--------------------------------

Comparison. Comparison of an adjective or an adverb is the indication, by inflection or otherwise, of degrees of quality, quantity, or manner. There are three degrees of comparison:

	Positive	Comparative	Superlative
ADJECTIVES	old	older	oldest
	beautiful	more beautiful	most beautiful
ADVERBS	hard	harder	hardest
	rapidly	less rapidly	least rapidly

Ordinarily *er* or *r* is added to the positive to form the comparative, and *est* or *st* to the positive to form the super-

lative (*brave, braver, bravest*). But many words of two or more syllables are compared by adding to the positive stem *more* or *less* for the comparative and *most* or *least* for the superlative. Some adjectives and adverbs express qualities that do not permit comparison (*dead, four-sided, unique*).

Complement (also called *completer*). A complement is a word or word-group in the predicate that completes the essential meaning of the verb. There are three kinds of complements:

OBJECT: Trees mark the *course* of the river.

PREDICATE NOUN: My sister is a *teacher*. That is *she*.

PREDICATE ADJECTIVE: The program was *jolly*.

Conjugation. Conjugation is a series of inflectional changes in the verb to indicate person, number, tense, voice, mode. (See § 57 under *Verb*.)

Construction (also called *syntax*). See p. 148.

Coordinate. The adjective *coordinate* means *equal in rank*: Tom and Jerry . . . *hop, skip, and jump* . . . *quarterly* or *semiannually* . . .

Copula. See *Linking verb*.

Declension. Declension is a series of changes in a noun, pronoun, or adjective to indicate person, number, or case.

Direct address or vocative. A "word in direct address" is a noun or pronoun used parenthetically (set off by commas) to show who is spoken to: *George*, will you hand me the soup ladle? [Do not confuse *direct address* with *direct quotation*, the exact words of another.]

Element. An element is any word or word-group that has a separate grammatical function in a sentence. *Sentence element* is a convenient general term because it spares us the necessity of repeating the awkward series "word, phrase, clause, or other word-group" when we are discussing punctuation or grammar.

THE TERMS OF GRAMMAR

Ellipsis, elliptical expression. An ellipsis is an expression partially incomplete, so that words have to be understood to round out the meaning. An idea or relation corresponding to the omitted words is present, at least vaguely, in the mind of the speaker. Elliptical sentences are usually justifiable except when the reader cannot instantly supply the understood words.

I will go if you will [go]. You are as lazy as I [am lazy].
Is your sister coming? I think [my sister is] not [coming].

Gerund. A gerund is a verbal in *ing* used as a noun. (See Verbal.)

I do not object to your *telling*.
His *having deserted* us made little difference.

Independent element (also called interrupter). An independent element is a word or word-group that has no construction—no grammatical connection with other words in the sentence.

INTERJECTION: *Shucks*, someone is coming.

NOUN IN DIRECT ADDRESS: *Sister*, stop talking.

DIRECTIVE EXPRESSION: Her family, *they say*, is wealthy.

ABSOLUTE EXPRESSION: *The wind having died down*, we took to the oars. [An absolute expression is regularly built upon a noun and a participle. Sometimes it has almost the meaning of an adverb clause (when the wind had died down).]

Infinitive. An infinitive is a verbal regularly introduced by *to* and used as a noun or a modifier. (See Verbal.)

USED AS A NOUN: *To err* is human. I like *to eat*.

USED AS AN ADJECTIVE: house *to rent*, car *to drive*.

USED AS AN ADVERB: ready *to go*, dressed *to attract* attention.

After certain verbs (*bid, dare, help, make, need*) the sign *to* is omitted. Do you dare *go*? Please help *peel* potatoes.

Inflection is a series of changes in the form of a word to show a modification or shade of meaning. Once our language offered a separate form for nearly every modification. Though separate forms are now less numerous, *inflection* is still a convenient general term to include the *declension* of nouns, the *comparison* of adjectives and adverbs, and the *conjugation* of verbs.

Linking verb (also called *copula*). A linking verb is a verb used to express the relation between the subject and the predicate noun or adjective. Linking verbs include *be* (*is, are, was, were*), *become, seem*, etc., and sometimes *feel, smell, sound, taste*.

ABRIDGED CONJUGATION OF THE VERB *be*

Singular

Present	I am	You are	He is
Past	I was	You were	He was
Future	I shall be	You will be	He will be
Pres. Perfect	I have been	You have been	He has been
Past Perfect	I had been	You had been	He had been
Future Perfect	I shall have been	You will have been	He will have been

Plural

Present	We are	You are	They are
Past	We were	You were	They were
Future	We shall be	You will be	They will be
Pres. Perfect	We have been	You have been	They have been
Past Perfect	We had been	You had been	They had been
Future Perfect	We shall have been	You will have been	They will have been

Mode (also called *Mood*). See *Verb*.

Modifier. A modifier is a word or expression used to describe or limit the meaning of another word. *Fried rabbit* means

something different from *rabbit*; hence *fried* is said to modify or limit *rabbit*. *Women in politics* means something different from *women*; hence the phrase *in politics* is said to modify or limit *women*.

To modify is to be grammatically dependent; hence in *the girl I like* both *the* and [*that*] *I like* are dependent upon *girl*. In *a very intelligent girl* the adjectives *a* and *intelligent* modify *girl* and *very* modifies *intelligent*.

Modifiers may be words, phrases, or clauses. They may be adjectival modifiers (modifying a noun) or adverbial modifiers (modifying a verb, an adjective, or an adverb).

	Adjectival Modifier	Adverbial Modifier
Clause	children { <i>who are healthy</i>	come { <i>after you have rested</i>
Phrase	{ <i>in good health</i>	{ <i>after your rest</i>
Word	<i>healthy</i> children	come <i>afterward</i>

Object. An object is a noun (or the equivalent) that completes the meaning of a preposition or a transitive verb.

OBJECT OF A PREPOSITION: through the *house*, between *her* and *me*.

OBJECT OF A VERB: broke a *window*, presented a new *play*.

Indirect Object is the term sometimes used to describe a noun or pronoun that precedes the direct object, telling *to whom* or *for whom* the verb-act is accomplished.

The cook baked *me* a gooseberry pie. [Here *me* is the indirect object, and *pie* is the direct object. The direct object receives the verb act, and the indirect object receives the object.]

The modern tendency is to abandon the term indirect object and to explain the construction as an elliptical phrase from which the preposition *to* or *for* has been omitted.

Participle. A verbal in *ing* (and the past form ending in *ed*, *t*, *en*, or the like) when used as an adjective is called a participle. (See Verbal.)

Señora García, *wearing* the pearls, came to the footlights.
Having emptied the fish basket, he returned to the wharf.

Passive Voice. See Verb.

Phrase. A phrase is a word group used as a single part of speech and not built around a verb and its subject.

A **prepositional phrase** is built around a preposition:

With a whistle and a roar the train arrived.

A verbal phrase is built around a participle, gerund, or infinitive:

Jack and Jill went up the hill *to fetch a pail of water* [infinitive phrase].

Predicate. A predicate is a word or word-group that makes an assertion about the subject. We may use *predicate* or *simple predicate* to mean the verb alone. We may use *predicate* or (more accurately) *complete predicate* to mean the verb assertion expanded by modifiers or completers. Two or more verbs that are governed by the same subject form a **compound predicate**:

Jerry can swim, but he never *races or dives*.

Predicate complement. A predicate complement is a noun (or noun-equivalent) or an adjective used in the predicate to complete the meaning of the verb *be* or some other linking verb.

Predicate noun (also called **predicate nominative**). A predicate noun is a noun (or pronoun) in the predicate that points back to the subject, classifying it or explaining it. A pred-

icate noun occurs only after *be* (*is, are, was, were*) or some other linking, no-action verb.

John is *halfback*. They became *neighbors*.

Predicate adjective. A predicate adjective is an adjective in the predicate that points back to the subject, describing it or limiting it. A predicate adjective occurs only after *be* (*is, are, was, were*) or some other no-action verb like *become, appear, seem*.

She is *redheaded* and *Irish*. She appears *clever*.

Predication. A predication is a related word group containing a subject and a predicate; clauses and simple sentences are both predications.

Sentence. A sentence is a group of words that contains a verb and its subject and whatever else is necessary to complete the thought. A part of a sentence built around a subject and a verb is called a *clause*.

A **main clause** (also called **independent clause**) is an independent statement; it could stand alone and form a sentence by itself.

A **subordinate clause** (also called **dependent clause**) is one that does the work of a single part of speech (adjective, adverb, or noun).

TWO MAIN CLAUSES: *The dog barked, and the thief ran.*

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: *The thief runs when the dogs bark.*

A sentence of one independent statement is called **simple**.

SIMPLE SENTENCE	{	The dogs barked at the thief. Thieves and tramps fear dogs. [Compound subject] Dogs bark and howl at night. [Compound predicate]
--------------------	---	--

A sentence of two or more independent statements (two or more *main clauses*) is called **compound**.

COMPOUND SENTENCE { The thieves ran, and the dogs followed.
Dogs barked; thieves ran; excitement reigned.

A sentence containing a subordinate clause is called **complex**.

COMPLEX SENTENCE { *When the dogs barked* the thieves ran. The night is cold, and the dogs bark *when the wind blows*.
[This sentence is both complex and compound; it may be called a compound-complex sentence.]

Substantive is an inclusive term for a noun or for a word or word-group that stands in the place of a noun (pronoun, clause, infinitive, gerund).

A **substantive phrase** is a phrase used as a noun:

From Dan to Beersheba is a term for the whole of Israel.

A **substantive clause** is a clause used as a noun:

That he owed the money is certain.

Syntax (also called **construction**). Syntax is the grammatical relation between words, phrases, and clauses in a sentence. Always ask "What work does this word or word-group do in the sentence?" The answer is its syntax or construction. See the first page of this article.

Verbal. A verbal is a form derived from a verb but used as a noun or a modifier.

A **participle** does the work of an adjective:

the *drifting* snow, the new-fallen snow.

A **gerund** does the work of a noun:

Drifting with the current is pleasant.

An **infinitive** does the work of a noun or a modifier:

- *To drift* is pleasant, but we have work *to do*.
Those lily-pads look good enough *to eat*.

A verbal is not a main verb; it cannot take a subject or be used alone as a predicate. It cannot form a sentence. It does, however, retain some of the functions of a verb: it may take an object or be modified by an adverb. Hence it is no one part of speech but an "in between." Below are examples of verbals that have objects or modifiers:

object adverb

INFINITIVE: *To shoe* a horse well requires skill. [*To shoe a horse well* is an infinitive phrase.]

object

GERUND: In *shoeing* a horse the careful *trimming* of the hoof is important. [*In shoeing a horse* is a gerund phrase.]

adverb

object

PARTICIPLE: The old gray, continually *stamping* his feet, is hard to handle. [*Continually stamping his feet* is a participial phrase.]

SUMMARY OF VERBAL FORMS

	<i>Present</i>	<i>Past</i>
Infinitive {	ACTIVE: to give	to have given
	PASSIVE: to be given	to have been given
Participle {	ACTIVE: giving	having given
and {		having been given
Gerund {	PASSIVE: being given	given (short form, participle only)

Participle and gerund are identical in form (except that the short past passive is used as a participle only). Some grammarians do not use the term *gerund*. The three important forms are shown in boldfaced type.

EXERCISE

A. Copy the subjects and verbs for each sentence (be sure to get *all* the verb and *nothing but* the verb). Number your answers. Write also S (= Simple) or Cx (= Complex) or C (= Compound) to indicate the type of sentence.

1. The American girl in business spends nearly half of her wage for clothing.
2. The old man fondled the dog's ear and stroked its head.
3. Once I had a tame owl, but he was a very stupid pet.
4. She does not know what she will do.
5. What you say is true enough.
6. How an air brake works has always been a mystery to me.
7. Painted walls can be washed; papered walls can rarely be [washed].
8. She was frying the potatoes when Fred came in.
9. When the cat goes away the mice will play.
10. George called loudly, and his chattering little friend ran to the door of the cage.
11. Chemistry deals largely with the properties of different substances and with the changes which these substances undergo.
12. In the afternoon the cattle go down to the river to drink and to sleep in the sun.
13. Since glass is a poor conductor of electricity it is used for insulators.
14. Al went from door to door in the villages mending for a few pennies the pots and the kettles of housewives.
15. A water-power plant demands a larger initial investment of capital in proportion to the amount of power obtained than a steam-power plant [does]. [Words like *does* are said to

be "understood"; they may sometimes be inserted in brackets to make the construction clear.]

B. Make a table like the following and supply the information called for about each phrase in each numbered sentence.

<i>The phrase</i>	<i>The kind of phrase (prepositional or verbal)</i>	<i>The work done by the phrase (adjective or adverb)</i>	<i>The word which the phrase modifies</i>
1. Having fifty cents	verbal	adjective	I
2. in the orchard	prepositional	adverb	nibbled
from the trees			

1. Having fifty cents, I felt quite rich.
2. In the orchard the deer nibbled apples from the trees.
3. In mid-stream the current was swift, and our horses struggled against it.
4. Yes, it will soon be time for lunch.
5. Will you go to the concert with me, Miss Davis?
6. Hearing a strange voice, I ran into the hall.
7. At sunset the shadows of the old tree stretch across the lawn to our doorstep.
8. After dinner I like to loaf and to play with the dog.
9. Before noon I was hungry enough to eat a crow.
10. A man carrying a green umbrella climbed on the bus.
11. Who ever heard of angels carrying wood or building fires?
[Carrying and building are participles that modify angels.]

C. Make a table like the following. Supply the information called for with regard to each italicized clause.

<i>The clause</i>	<i>The kind of clause (main or subordinate)</i>	<i>The work done by the clause (adjective, adverb, or noun)</i>	<i>The word which the clause modifies (if it does modify)</i>
1. that we boys threw away	subordinate	adjective	crusts
2. that someone was at home	subordinate	noun	

1. The squirrels ate the crusts *that we boys threw away*.
2. Smoke curled from the chimney, and we knew *that someone was at home*.
3. Who knows *where Helen went*?
4. *Where she went* and *how she got there* are secrets.
5. You'll go *if you value my advice*.
6. I can't understand you *unless you speak more distinctly*.
7. *I'll hide here*, and you can ring the bell whenever you are ready.
8. *When a stranger comes toward the house* Towser almost snaps his chain.
9. I'll go *where I am needed*.
10. *Wherever you go* I'll tag along.

D. Copy two hundred words of good prose from any book. Then classify the phrases by means of a table like that just given under B.

E. Copy two hundred words of good prose from any book. Then classify the clauses by means of a table like that just given under C.

9.

REVIEW OF GRAMMAR

A. CASE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

Insert apostrophes where they are needed. Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. Leo had not decided (who, whom) he would take.
2. The property is really theirs.
3. Is that (he, him) or his brother?
4. This novel is about a farmers struggle to survive.
5. They stayed home on account of mother and (I, me).
6. We saw two crows sitting on a barn.
7. I'm sure that I'm as old as (they, them).
8. The fantasy is like astronomers dreaming.
9. Both of us, my roommate and (I, me), like music.
10. The prize goes to (whoever, whomever) finds the longest word.
11. She said that the comb was hers.
12. At that time I was just ten years old.
13. It's news to (we, us) hunters.
14. Everybody caught a fish except Mildred and (I, me).
15. After a weeks notice he quit.
16. The kitten follows (whoever, whomever) comes along.
17. (We, Us) friends never quarrel.
18. The best quarterbacks, Rex and (he, him), were hurt.
19. We shall ask her sister as well as (she, her).
20. Letters were sent to (we, us) students.
21. Who is that neighbor of yours?
22. Between you and (I, me), I'm glad of it.
23. No one else can play the cello as well as (he, him).
24. I went to the museum with Stanley, (who, whom) you probably remember.
25. We still have five miles of bad road to travel.
26. Virginia told the story to (whoever, whomever) she saw.
27. The beach was a stones throw from the cottage.

28. Ours is the house on the corner.
29. It won't matter that you missed (whoever, whomever) it was.
30. Those boys, Frank and (he, him), should be spoken to.

B. CASE OF NOUNS AND PRONOUNS

Insert apostrophes where they are needed. Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. Do you know whose hat this is?
2. The captain asked (we, us) and two others to row.
3. Taylors handwriting is easier to read than Rosss.
4. He is the man concerning (who, whom) the book was written.
5. They have lived on this street longer than (we, us).
6. The people (who, whom) you expected to arrive are here.
7. The people (who, whom) you expected, are here.
8. These are the desks, his and hers.
9. I never imagined that it would be (he, him).
10. Are you sure (who, whom) did it?
11. After two weeks trial we returned the machine.
12. Sally wishes it were anybody but (he, him).
13. The first to leave were Ruth and (she, her).
14. Did you take him to be (I, me)?
15. (We, Us) Harleys are a proud race.
16. The rest of (we, us) tourists remained ashore.
17. Mother baked father and (he, him) a pie.
18. There were no other golfers besides Sam and (I, me).
19. I was introduced to the girl of (who, whom) you spoke.
20. The job was left to Fisher and (he, him).
21. This law affects (whoever, whomever) drives a car.
22. She typewrites just as fast as (he, him).
23. The decision has been left to (we, us) five.
24. Tell the news to (whoever, whomever) you think will be interested.

25. Ours is easily distinguished from theirs.
26. He cultivates five acres of his farm.
27. We'll welcome (whoever, whomever) you bring.
28. Two players, Carver and (I, me), were picked.
29. Buy a quarters worth of bacon and twenty cents worth of sausage.
30. Theres nobody (who, whom) I'd rather see elected.

C. AGREEMENT OF PRONOUN WITH ANTECEDENT AND VERB WITH SUBJECT

In some of the following sentences there is lack of agreement on the part of the pronoun or pronominal adjective; make the necessary corrections. In some of the sentences a choice between the singular and the plural of the verb is to be made; strike out the incorrect form.

1. Each cow should have a stall to themselves.
2. A pound of feathers (weighs, weigh) as much as a pound of iron.
3. Often ignored (is, are) the first and most important cause of crime.
4. Neither (state, states) how the plan is to be adopted.
5. Where can you buy those kind of slippers?
6. Any petition (is, are) examined on their merits.
7. Another grain of sand (doesn't, don't) matter.
8. Compare the advantages of the electric stove with that of the gas stove.
9. He finds that economics (is, are) interesting.
10. In time everybody (receives, receive) their tickets.
11. Forsyte is downed by circumstances, but not kept down by it.
12. A million dollars (is, are) a big sum.
13. Either to advance or to retreat (was, were) not easy.
14. Patience in time of adversity (is, are) a virtue.
15. A basket of fish (was, were) in the hold.

16. Ties of family affection (keeps, keep) her from leaving.
17. The corporation filed their appeal for a new hearing.
18. Every golfer of the foursome (has, have) their pet club.
19. The cost of cotton and wool (has, have) risen.
20. Opportunity for rhythmic expression through playing musical instruments (is, are) extended to each student as a part of his education.

D. AGREEMENT OF PRONOUN WITH ANTECEDENT AND VERB WITH SUBJECT

In some of the following sentences there is lack of agreement on the part of the pronoun or pronominal adjective; make the necessary corrections. In some of the sentences a choice between the singular and the plural of the verb is to be made; strike out the incorrect form.

1. Possession (is, are) nine points of the law.
2. Scott makes you see each character and remember them.
3. I'm sure that mockingbird (doesn't, don't) sleep a wink.
4. One should examine their change before leaving the box office.
5. Neither the gas nor the electricity (is, are) on.
6. I wish that I had those kind of gloves.
7. The cause of the damage (was, were) the heavy rains.
8. Although a cat may not have nine lives, they have a way of surviving.
9. The teacher together with the pupils (is, are) going to the lecture.
10. Do you know what (is, are) the latest news?
11. A number of copies (goes, go) to the Library of Congress.
12. The complicated shades of meaning (make, makes) his book hard to read.
13. Some of the ice on the pond (is, are) cracking.
14. A crowd (is, are) waiting for the game to begin.

15. Cotton's awareness of his opportunities (accounts, account) for his efforts.
16. None of the building material (has, have) arrived.
17. Either to open the window or to turn off the radiator (was, were) essential.
18. There (is, are) four rooms on the first floor.
19. The town council adjourned so that (it, they) could go home for dinner.
20. Walton is an authority on fishing, so that his use of details (is, are) accurate.

E. ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB

Strike out the incorrect (or less satisfactory) forms.

1. I'm (real, really) glad to meet you.
2. Nothing smells so (sweet, sweetly) as clover.
3. Those customers (sure, surely) ate bread and butter.
4. Harriet can print (neater, more neatly) than ever.
5. The patient was (some, somewhat) better.
6. When he sulked, he stayed (sulky, sulkily) all day.
7. He (sure, surely) can play baseball.
8. I wonder why I feel so (gay, gayly)?
9. Time passes less (rapid, rapidly) when you are alone.
10. This water tastes (peculiar, peculiarly) at first.
11. He spoke (sharp, sharply).
12. McKinley treats his employees very (good, well).
13. Although she often looks (tired, tiredly), she keeps going.
14. The train always arrives (punctual, punctually).
15. When his pet frog died, Bob felt (sad, sadly).
16. There was a (real, really) diamond ring in the window.
17. Please give us the idea of your plans (some, somewhat).
18. Can you bend (low, lowly)?
19. He felt (uneasy, uneasily) in evening clothes.
20. This play is going to be a (sure, surely) success.
21. Her eyes appear (bright, brightly).

22. So (clever, cleverly) he did it, that everyone was amazed.
23. The suit is (near, nearly) pressed.
24. How do you like the (book publication method, method of publishing books)?
25. She rushed (quick, quickly) to the telephone.

F. ADJECTIVE AND ADVERB

Strike out the incorrect (or less satisfactory) forms.

1. The plane vanished (sudden, suddenly) behind a cloud.
2. If you do not hear (good, well), sit up front.
3. I'll return the pencil as (prompt, promptly) as I can.
4. The noon whistle sounded (good, well) to Alan.
5. They eat (hearty, heartily) at breakfast.
6. It is (high, highly) time something were attempted.
7. The plot was worked out as (clever, cleverly) as could be.
8. He spoke more (serious, seriously) than did she.
9. That makes a (decided, decidedly) improvement.
10. No one ever looked less (angry, angrily).
11. The canary was (quick, quickly) out of reach.
12. I am not doing so (bad, badly).
13. Be (just, justly) as quiet as a mouse.
14. How (wretched, wretchedly) I felt!
15. They acted (rash, rashly) in sending the letter.
16. Everybody says that she drives (careful, carefully).
17. This bread tastes (fresher, more freshly) than that.
18. He'll do it (ready, readily) if you ask him.
19. We looked (hasty, hastily) at the album.
20. You've done very (good, well).
21. (Real, Really) patriots don't boast.
22. This happens (disgusting, disgustingly) often.
23. It's (most, almost) time for the show to begin.
24. He's (wonderful, wonderfully) kind to animals.
25. This is a device (for electric pad temperature control, to control the temperature of electric pads).

G. OTHER FUNCTIONAL MISFITS

Make the changes necessary to improve the grammar of the following sentences.

1. That cocky manner it was annoying.
2. I've yet to see her enthuse.
3. Signed by Clay makes this letter valuable.
4. The radiator steamed like a geyser does.
5. Ralph was hoping for an invite.
6. There wasn't scarcely any water in the stream.
7. There is no hardship for him to give up smoking.
8. She was one of the first, if not the first, white children born in Arizona.
9. Because the tracks had been doubled confused the dog.
10. Don't go nowhere without us.
11. The accident happened on account of the driver fell asleep.
12. We thought that since we needed a change that we ought to go away for a week.
13. Why do you suspicion the butler?
14. This is as comfortable, if not more comfortable, than any other chair in the house.
15. The plan was one everybody could accept it.
16. I see in the paper where the cost of living is going up.
17. John he isn't hard to please.
18. They was someone here to see you.
19. She couldn't help but smile.
20. The lawn slopes, making it hard to cut.
21. He tripped over that there rug.
22. The reason I called was because I've a question.
23. He doesn't know as he can attend the meeting.
24. These plants have and will be easy to grow.
25. A field goal is where the ball is kicked between the posts without the team's having to cross the goal line.

H. TENSE AND MODE

Some of the following sentences offer a choice as to tense; strike out the incorrect forms. Some of the sentences confuse modes; make the necessary corrections.

1. We intended to (buy, have bought) gasoline.
2. If this was a boat, the floors would be decks.
3. She showed us a picture which she (painted, has painted, had painted).
4. Galileo believed that the earth (revolves, revolved) about the sun.
5. First sandpaper the wood until the surface is smooth. Then you should fill in all the cracks.
6. Those who may dislike one type of music, like another.
7. I (heard, have heard) that on the radio last night.
8. If only you was going along!
9. What is his reason for (ignoring, having ignored) us yesterday?
10. The man who produces indestructible china would make a fortune.
11. Her poetry shows technical skill. One of her poems (is, was) a superb sonnet.
12. We see what life at the factory is like. There would be little time for creative work.
13. I never expected to (meet, have met) you here.
14. Hilda moves that an appropriation is to be made.
15. He (was, has been) admitted to the bar last year.
16. When I received the offer, I (accepted, had accepted).
17. Nobody supposed that our team would (win, have won) the game.
18. So that he might become a lifeguard, he is studying first aid.
19. I am glad to (save, have saved) the receipt for the lost letter.
20. At the end of the day we unrolled the sleeping bags that we (brought, had brought).

I. SHALL AND WILL, SHOULD AND WOULD

Strike out the incorrect forms. If it appears to you that either form could be used, give reasons.

1. (Shall, Will) I travel by train?
2. If they (should, would) refuse, try once more.
3. They (shall, will) have to admit their mistake.
4. John (shall, will) probably be at school.
5. (Should, Would) that I had my way!
6. You (shall, will) serve on the committee, (shall, will) you not?
7. We (shall, will) defend ourselves to the last.
8. I (shall, will) loaf on the beach until noon.
9. (Should, Would) you diet if you were she?
10. Do you think that they (shall, will) expect us?
11. You (should, would) try to relax.
12. They (shall, will) not get the better of us.
13. (Shall, Will) this wind ever stop?
14. The children (should, would) often stay for the second show.
15. I (shall, will) never give my consent.
16. One (should, would) speak the truth, (should, would) one not?
17. You (shall, will) do as you are told.
18. If you (should, would) change your mind, let us know.
19. What do you imagine they (shall, will) say?
20. You (shall, will) take a chance, (shall, will) you?

J. PRINCIPAL PARTS

Strike out the incorrect forms.

Lie and Lay

1. The book (lay, laid) unopened.
2. I shall (lie, lay) my work aside.

3. The sick man was (lying, laying) on a stretcher.
4. Her costume had been (lain, laid) out.
5. When one (lies, lays) awake at night, every sound is a noise.
6. The supper table needs (lying, laying).
7. Below us (lay, laid) the town.
8. The farmer allowed the field to (lie, lay) fallow.
9. See how the land (lies, lays).
10. A wreath is being (lain, laid) on the grave.

Sit and Set

11. Some people can (sit, set) by the hour without talking.
12. A politician has to know how to (sit, set) on the fence.
13. Who came in and (sat, set) his overshoes in the corner?
14. We (sat, set) out the dance.
15. (Sit, Set) the table, please.
16. A tailor has his own way of (sitting, setting).
17. I should not (sit, set) here in your light.
18. She (sat, set) her cap for him.
19. Little (sat, set) as judge in the case.
20. Has a price been (sat, set) on that lot?
21. We were all ready to (sit, set) down.
22. An English saddle is easy to (sit, set) on.
23. The decision has been (sat, set) aside.
24. Did you ever try (sitting, setting) a car on blocks?
25. The new chair had never been (sat, set) on.

Rise and Raise

26. At what time does the tide (rise, raise) tomorrow?
27. One hill (rose, raised) higher than another.
28. (Rising, Raising) the sunken barge was hard work.
29. See how the cream (rises, raises) up to the top.
30. Paul had (rose, risen, raised) to his feet.

K. PRINCIPAL PARTS—MISCELLANEOUS VERBS

Strike out the incorrect (or less satisfactory) forms.

1. Nobody could say who (did, done) it.
2. Sam (give, gave) him a boost.
3. It was a well (wrote, written) letter.
4. For a week she (ate, eat) no solid food.
5. The announcer (ask, asked) me my name.
6. That year they (send, sent) Christmas cards.
7. We were (attacked, attacted) by wasps.
8. Has Uncle Louie (come, came) home?
9. He soon (begin, begun, began) to laugh.
10. One of the guests (brought, brung) a friend.
11. Big loads are (born, borne) by camels.
12. When the canoe capsized, I nearly (drowned, drowneded).
13. Pretty soon the baby had (went, gone) to sleep.
14. The decorations were (hanged, hung) from the ceiling.
15. It was the first time he had ever (saw, seen) snow.
16. The horse (ran, run) away with the wagon.
17. Our fingers were nearly (froze, frozen).
18. He was (drove, driven) to the barn.
19. The cat (slinked, slunk) away.
20. They (threw, throwed) away their chances.
21. Our dog is only half (growed, grown).
22. He had (fell, fallen) from the tree.
23. What sort of life have you (lead, led)?
24. One of the locomotives (blew, blowed) up.
25. That pony has never been (rode, ridden).
26. The Indians (sneaked, snuck) up on them.
27. A full moon (shined, shone) that night.
28. The piece was well (spoke, spoken).
29. I would have (swore, sworn) that he was there.

30. She had (sang, sung) the same song before.
31. Somewhere I've (loosed, lost) a nickel.
32. My brother was (born, borned) in Missouri.
33. At the picnic we (drank, drunk) lemonade.
34. That river has yet to be (swam, swum).
35. Everybody in town (knew, knowed) Major.
36. The paper had been (tore, torn) to pieces.
37. He (weaped, wept) bitter tears.
38. The pipes had (burst, bursted).
39. She (chose, choosed) wisely.
40. He had (stole, stolen) quietly into the room.

L. COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Strike out the incorrect (or less satisfactory) forms.

1. John is (taller, more tall) than Harry.
 2. We live in the (southernmost, most southernmost) part of the state.
 3. The waves are (highest, most high) at the prow.
 4. The violin was (unique, most unique).
 5. She preferred to be (entirely, most entirely) without friends.
 6. On a (more little, littler) farm one could not live.
 7. You will have to walk (more quickly, quicklier).
 8. This is the (better, best) of the three views.
 9. The other story is (more imaginatively, imaginativelier) written.
 10. It was the (loveliest, most lovely) time I've ever had.
-



Diction



DICTION

Diction means choice of words—the choice of words that are correct and effective. The main problems of diction are summarized here in the form of rules; for minor problems you must consult a dictionary.

The dictionary is useful for many sorts of information about words: spelling, pronunciation, grammar, derivation, meaning, besides comment on synonyms and idiomatic phrases. After some words (or after *certain meanings* under some words) occur warnings (*Colloq.*, *Dial.*, *Tech.*, etc.) to tell you that the word or meaning is not in good use for every purpose; it has only a limited use as a *colloquial*, or a *dialectal*, or a *technical* word. You can find *ain't* in Webster; but you are not justified in using *ain't* merely because "It's in the dictionary." Note that Webster brands *ain't* as *Dialectal* or *Illiterate*. Under *bunk* Webster marks one of the noun meanings *Slang* and one of the verb meanings *Colloquial*; other meanings not so branded are in good use. Under *pep* all meanings are marked *Colloquial*; under *gritty* one meaning is marked *Colloquial* and another is not.

WORDINESS

10. Use words economically; strike out useless constructions.

ROUNDABOUT IMPERSONAL CONSTRUCTION: There are many interesting things which may be seen in New York. [12 words.]

BETTER: Many interesting things may be seen in New York. [9 words.]

CLAUSE TO BE REDUCED TO A PHRASE: A skeleton stood in the office of Dr. Willard, and it was terrifying to little Cecil. [16 words.]

RIGHT: A skeleton in Dr. Willard's office was terrifying to little Cecil. [11 words.]

CLAUSE AND PHRASE EACH TO BE REDUCED TO A WORD: Men who cared only for their individual interests were now in a state of discouragement. [15 words.]

RIGHT: Selfish men were now discouraged. [5 words.]

WASTEFUL OVERLAPPING: That day I was shocking wheat behind the binder. Shocking wheat behind the binder was my usual job in harvest. That day while I was working at this job, I found a nest full of partridge eggs. [37 words.]

RIGHT: That day, while shocking wheat behind the binder, my usual job in harvest, I found a nest full of partridge eggs. [21 words.]

Saying a Thing Twice

The useless repetition of an idea in different words is called tautology.

TAUTOLOGY: He had an *entire monopoly* on the *whole* fruit trade. [This is like saying "black blackbird."]

Redundant or Tautological Expressions

this here	necessary requisite
where at	total effect of all this
return back	big in size
ascend up	short in height
repeat again	triangular in form
meet up with	green in color
combined together	perfectly all right
final result	unexpected surprise
biography of his life	quite round
good benefits	many in number

fellow playmates	strict accuracy
Halloween evening	absolutely annihilated
important essentials	still continue to
endorse on the back	absolutely new creation

EXERCISE

1. Thoreau was a man who liked to spend much time alone in the solitude of the woods.
2. Mrs. Brush was preparing to start to call the police for the purpose of investigating the mystery.
3. There are the weekly and monthly periodicals which are more reliable than the daily newspapers.
4. He was pursued by remorse for something he had done that he was ashamed of afterward in later years.
5. In all important essentials the biography of his life is like any other.
6. There was much good talk went on at the Sedgwick dinner table, and the little girls learned a great deal from listening to it.
7. Like so many talented geniuses he had difficulty in adapting himself to get along with his playmates, and this made him unhappy.
8. There could be nothing plainer than to see how valuable this significant purchase was to the United States.
9. Perhaps I had better describe this particular dance that I saw when I went to see the Indian dances. It is called the "Sun Dance."
10. There were six teachers hired to teach the students, and they stayed at their own homes and not with the students.

JARGON AND TRITENESS

51. Avoid roundabout expressions, and empty abstract words, and borrowed words that do not fit the sense.

Jargon

Jargon is a pretentious way of saying something. It shows itself in inappropriate technical language, unnecessary big words, and empty parroted phrases.

UNNECESSARY BIG WORDS: The foregoing types of sweater all have the property of reversibility.

JARGON CURED BY CANCELING: All these sweaters are reversible.

FORCED SYNONYMS: Draft horses weigh twice as much as steeds of the saddle variety.

JARGON CURED BY REPEATING: Draft horses weigh twice as much as saddle horses. [Do not be afraid to repeat the word that fits.]

MISUSING A SPECIAL VOCABULARY: The man on the desk blue-penciled me to half a stick and killed my by-line.

JARGON CURED BY SUBSTITUTING: The city editor shortened my article to a few inches and canceled my signature. [For an ordinary audience use ordinary terms.]

ELEGANT VARIATION: Long before Sarah Bernhardt passed away she purchased a casket and planned the obsequies.

JARGON CURED BY HONEST WORDS: Long before Sarah Bernhardt died she bought a coffin and planned her funeral.

HUMOROUS VARIATION: The noble guardian of our portals received his viands in the shape of the canine confection known in the vernacular as dog biscuit. [Try this style once, and avoid it thereafter.]

JARGON CURED BY SIMPLICITY: Our dog had a dinner of dog biscuit.

EMPTY PARROTED PHRASES: In the case of the majority of the farmers I have come into contact with it might be said that their troubles in connection with agricultural matters were of such a nature as to be overcome more easily than their difficulties with regard to financial matters.

JARGON CURED BY SUBSTITUTING, CANCELING, AND REPEATING: Most

of the farmers I have met could overcome their farming problems more easily than their money problems.

Before you use loose or roundabout expressions, think what you really mean and try to say it in simpler or in more specific words. Go straight, not roundabout.

Not Simple, Not Direct	Direct
with whom they come in contact	whom they meet
has an inferiority complex	feels inadequate
within the realm of possibility	possible
after due consideration	after thinking it over
according as to whether	depending on
in respect of	in
in connection with	with
of a high order	good
it might be said that	[Simply say it.]

Triteness

Triteness is the use of stale borrowed phrases. An expression is trite not just because it has been used many times but because it is insincere—not a true fit—not thought out for the occasion.

Words in themselves are not trite. Triteness comes from (1) the use of invariable combinations (*last* bringing in *but not least*) or from (2) the invariable use of the same words in certain situations (if it is a *pine* it is *mur-muring*; if it is a *cloud* it is *fleecy*).

TAGS FROM EVERYDAY SPEECH: *tired but happy, had the time of my life, home sweet home.*

OVERWORKED QUOTATIONS: *monarch of all I survey, footprints on the sands of time.*

PARROTED FINE WRITING: *the gentlemen of the fourth estate, reigns supreme, the powers that be, joy was unconfined.*

List of Trite Expressions

meets the eye	sadder but wiser
feathered songsters	did justice to a dinner
a long-felt want	a goodly number
the last sad rites	budding genius
launched into eternity	beggars description
last but not least	a dull thud
doomed to disappointment	silence broken only by
at one fell swoop	wending their way
trees stood like sentinels	abreast of the times
method in his madness	the proud possessor
sun-kissed meadows	too full for utterance
the worse for wear	a pugilistic encounter
hoping you are the same	conspicuous by its absence
nipped in the bud	exception proves the rule
the happy pair	as luck would have it
seething mass of humanity	more easily imagined than de-
specimen of humanity	scribed
with bated breath	where ignorance is bliss
green with envy	bring us a message
the third time is the charm	sea of faces
along these lines	in the case of
in this instance	this day and age
to such a degree that	to the fullest extent
of such a nature as to	more or less
of a character to	when all is said and done

EXERCISE

1. A sheep dog's intelligence might be said to be of a high order.
2. It is not within the bounds of reason to expect to be liked by everyone you come in contact with.

3. In several instances the experiments are of such a nature as to require the expenditure of two or three hours.
4. The defeat of our team today was not so disastrous as last Saturday's massacre when our pigskin pushers met their Waterloo at Centerville.
5. Before the hour of the evening repast they had made several purchases in the furniture line and acquired an outstanding example of the pictorial art to ornament the mantelpiece.
6. Each of these benighted beings is more than glad to be a mere cog in the machine.
7. Another quality that shows what a great man he was was his sincerity.
8. Believing that variety is the spice of life the management has provided recreational facilities for the horny-handed sons of toil.
9. As we wended our weary way homeward our limbs ached to such an extent that we thought we should never reach our happy firesides.
10. Permit me to say as regards the delivery of your magazine that to the best of my knowledge and belief it was made on Tuesday.

SLANG

62. Use slang with caution; it is out of place in formal and semi-formal writing for several reasons:

1. Slang is conspicuous and therefore distracting to the reader.
2. A slang phrase may be meaningless to one outside a certain group.
3. Some slang expressions satisfy a need and work their way to a reputable position, but we can seldom predict which these will be. The fresh and witty phrase of today is perhaps worn out and stale tomorrow. The more popular it is the faster it dies.

4. Slang is often an enemy to close reasoning; it substitutes phonographic repetition for independent thinking.

Slang consists of popular terms which are abnormal or conspicuous because of some new or vivid or humorous twist in meaning or emphasis. To know whether a certain word or expression is slang consult the dictionary. If the word is not shown it is not in good use. If it is shown, find the meaning you want and see whether or not that meaning is labeled *slang*. Often one meaning of a word is acceptable whereas another is slang, since a slang expression is frequently created by a conscious distortion or misapplication of a word.

The least desirable types of slang are these:

EXPRESSIONS OF VULGAR ORIGIN (from criminal classes, the prize ring, cheap radio programs, etc.): *dope, a joint, ten grand, kayo, down for the count, take it on the lam, hep, picklepuss, hot dog.*

LANGUAGE STRAINED OR DISTORTED FOR NOVEL EFFECT: *bingled a tall drive that sent the horsehide rambling out into center garden.*

BLANKET EXPRESSIONS USED AS SUBSTITUTES FOR THINKING: *swell, lousy, keen, nuts, it's a honey.*

EXERCISE

1. The critics declared that the troupe was nothing but a bunch of hams and that their whole program was corny.
2. Lincoln's wife was rather a sourpuss, who seemed to enjoy putting him in the doghouse.
3. If people were hep to the importance of good housing we could make swell progress.
4. Hydrogen sulphide has an awful smell and knocks you for a loop if you get too much.
5. In his second administration the president's cabinet was a lousy outfit, always getting in his hair.

IDIOMS

3. Make your expression conform to English idiom.

A faulty idiom is an expression which, though correct in grammar and general meaning, combines words in a manner contrary to usage. "I enjoy to read" is wrong, not because the words offend logic or grammar, but merely because people do not customarily make that combination of words. "I like to read" and "I enjoy reading" are good idioms.

Faulty Idioms

in the year of 1950
different than
enamored with
the Rev. Hopkins
possessed with ability
stay to home
listen at
independent from
comply to

Correct Idioms

in the year 1950
different from
enamored of
the Reverend Mr. Hopkins
possessed of ability
stay at home
listen to
independent of
comply with

Prepositional Idioms

Observe that in many idioms the meaning is controlled by a preposition. Make sure that a verb, adjective, or phrase is accompanied by the right preposition. Study the following list of correct idioms:

accused of (a theft)
accused by (a person)

agree with (a person)
agree to (a proposal)
agreeable to

correspond to (things)
correspond with (persons)

in accordance with
according to
accord with

angry at (a condition)	in search of
angry with (a person)	the search for
charge for (a purchase)	part from (a person)
charge with (a crime)	part with (a thing)
convenient to (a person)	the position of
convenient for (a purpose)	a position as
with regard [<i>not</i> regards] to	
as regards (a matter)	
with kind regards to (a person)	

Practice. Use each correct idiom in a sentence.

Mixed Idioms

Do not mix two idioms. That is, do not use the first half of one and the second half of another.

WRONG: Hitler had no *hesitation to use* force.

RIGHT: Hitler had no *hesitation in using* force.

ALSO RIGHT: Hitler did not *hesitate to use* force.

Idiomatic Use of Articles

NOTE 1.—Use articles idiomatically. Do not allow newspaper headlines to influence ordinary writing.

ARTICLE NECESSARY FOR THE SAKE OF IDIOM:

WRONG: Many political refugees came to United States in nineteenth century.

RIGHT: Many political refugees came to the United States in the nineteenth century.

ARTICLE NOT REQUIRED BY IDIOM:

WRONG: Any such a person . . . That kind of a man . . . A half an hour . . .

RIGHT: Any such person . . . That kind of man . . . A half hour [*or*] Half an hour . . .

NOTE 2.—Alert reading is the easiest road to a natural use of idiom. Repeating aloud, writing, and visualizing are useful for memorizing specific expressions that give you trouble. Reference to a dictionary will help you to the proper idiom when you are in doubt. For example, *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary* gives "agree . . . usually followed by *to* (for things), *with* (for persons); as, to *agree to* a proposal." Be sure to choose the meaning you really want.

EXERCISE

1. For a half an hour I was waiting on Mary to meet me.
2. In accordance to the President's proclamation a day is set off for Thanksgiving every year in United States.
3. By the year of 1947 I shall be capable to support myself, and then I shall be independent from my family.
4. We have replaced the opinions of nineteenth century for the knowledge that there is no such thing as a pure race.
5. Charlotte stayed to home to nurse Branwell and her sisters and to comply to her father's wish.

THE EXACT WORD

64. Find the exact word. Do not be content with a loose or approximate expression of your thought. Come to grips with your idea. Often the exact word may be one that is more specific ¹ or more concrete ² than the one you have used.

¹ A *specific* word is one that *points out a particular sort or kind*. The opposite of *specific* is *general*; a *general* word has a broad meaning. See §§ 45 and 65.

² A *concrete* word is one that *appeals directly to the senses*, it makes us *see, hear, feel*, etc. The opposite of *concrete* is *abstract*; an *abstract* word expresses an idea rather than a particular object that can readily be grasped by the senses.

ABUSED NOUNS: One *factor* of these Dutch homes is cleanliness.

[Use *characteristic* or *attraction* or *charm*.]

Promptness is an *item* which a manager should possess. [Use *virtue*.]

LOOSE ADJECTIVES OR ADVERBS: He looked *awfully* funny when I told him he had made a mistake. [Use *sheepish* or *chagrined*.]

Apple pie is *fine* with Devonshire cream. [Use *delicious*.]

That song is *perfectly* absurd. [Strike out *perfectly*.]

UNDISCRIMINATING VERBS: We *fixed* the old barn into a garage. [Use *made over*.]

He had not sufficiently *regarded* the difficulties of the task. [Use *considered* or *weighed*.]

OVERWORKED PHRASE: Pythagoras studied mathematics and made valuable discoveries *along that line*. [Say exactly what you mean: *in arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music*.]

Synonyms and the Dictionary

NOTE.—Study a good dictionary, preferably unabridged, to sharpen your choice of words. Often a word of vague general meaning will have many definitions from which you may select a word that makes your meaning exact and forceful. Take the overworked word *nice*.

Janice is a *nice* child.

Nice is not an exact fit for the idea you have in mind. You therefore seek a specific synonym in, for example, Webster's *New International Dictionary*. First you must discriminate. Of the ten definitions given for *nice* only the eighth and ninth suggest the idea of approval that you want to express.

8. Pleasing, agreeable, appetizing, delightful, good, kind, considerate, or the like; as a nice day, letter, etc.

9. Properly modest; well-behaved; well-mannered.

You select the one word that most nearly expresses your meaning.

Janice is a *considerate* child.

Often a word-finding list will stimulate your own mental file of synonyms.

There's a *nice* position open for someone.

Having sharpened your wits in discovering that the dictionary lists no synonym for *nice* that corresponds with what you really intend you search your brain and bring forth

There's a *profitable* position open.

Proposition and *said*, like *nice*, are both vague and overworked. Consider the gain in definiteness made possible by substitutes.

SUBSTITUTES FOR *proposition* (NOUN): *transaction, undertaking, venture, suggestion, overture, proposal, proffer, convenience, difficulty, thesis, or doctrine.*

SUBSTITUTES FOR *said* (VERB): *declared, related, insisted, exclaimed, added, repeated, replied, admitted, commented, corrected, protested, explained, besought; interrupted, inquired, stammered, sighed, murmured, or thundered.*

EXERCISE

1. I expected the game to be terribly unexciting.
2. It was certainly nice of you to remember me so nicely at Christmas.
3. He's always saying things along that line.
4. One thing about the house is the fine view of the river.
5. Your attitude has been simply swell.
6. I intend to be an explorer and I am planning my courses along that line.
7. Across the lawn were tennis courts and other pleasantries.
8. The Japanese tackled a tough proposition when they started to conquer China.
9. He said the element of cold wouldn't be a factor on this trip.
10. A feature of the play is Mona's saying she will never marry.

ALIVENESS, CONCRETENESS

**65. Visualize as you write. Use picture-making expressions.
Use concrete details.**

Use the words that have real meaning for you and the reader. Words of everyday speech, derived for the most part from Anglo-Saxon, are richer and warmer than the Latin derivations of scientific language and convey more meaning to the ordinary reader. Simple constructions bear the reader along faster than elaborate ones. This does not mean that we should carry into writing slovenly, slangy speech habits or tie ourselves to the primer sentence. Nor does it mean that we must throw away all our long words and shun complex sentences. No, for precise statement and closely reasoned discussion, exact shades of meaning and fine distinctions, we need our Latin abstractions and periodic sentences.

COLORLESS: composing his article

ALIVE: hammering out his thousand words

LIFELESS: expressed her indignation

PICTURESQUE: sputtered like a string of firecrackers

THIN: examine the equipment

SOLID: look over the tools, ropes, and ladders

DRY: He exaggerates every prospect.

RICH: All his geese are swans.

FLAT, NOT READILY VISUALIZED: The first inhabitants overcame the barriers to settlement about a century ago.

CONCRETE: Rough backwoodsmen cleared the underbrush and swamp-land a hundred years ago.

CONCRETENESS

65

Make an abstract idea easy to grasp by restating it in concrete words and by giving a concrete example.

ABSTRACT: Human beings can adapt themselves to varying climatic conditions, but are inclined to establish themselves where some aspects are familiar.

RESTATED CONCRETELY: A man from the snows of the north can learn to live in a tropical jungle, and one from the warm south can learn to endure northern cold; but the northerner is more likely to build his home in the north and the southerner in the south. Farmers from the cold plains of one country are likely to settle on the cold plains of another country; fisherfolk from a warm seashore will seek another warm seashore.

FOLLOWED BY AN EXAMPLE: In the snowy Dakotas, Montana, Minnesota, Nebraska trees were felled and the sod was broken by lumbermen and farmers from Norway, Sweden, Finland; in the vineyards of California Italians and Spaniards tend the grapes.

EXERCISE

A. Improve the following sentences.

1. We passed over a depression in the pavement.
2. She had always been protected.
3. He was disagreeable in appearance, personality, and character.
4. In conservation of natural resources America has been extremely negligent.
5. In many areas housing conditions are defective.

B. Collect from magazines, books, or from your own head twelve or fifteen living, concrete expressions. Analyze them to find what gives them their life—strong verbs, colorful nouns, or imagery by other means.

RHYTHM AND SOUND, NATURALNESS, EASE

66. Listen as you write. Listen again as you revise.

Choose words that fit well with surrounding words. Make one sentence follow another smoothly—but not monotonously. Try to adapt sound to sense. Listen to your writing and revise for effective rhythms,¹ changing jerky or monotonous or clashing sentences.²

REPETITION OF SOUND: He was an exceedingly orderly secretary. Finally he became an efficient vice-president.

IMPROVED: As a secretary he kept things in order; as a vice-president he is very efficient.

Do not put obstacles in your path by hitching an adjective to every noun and an adverb to every verb. Try to find a noun or a verb that conveys the full meaning.

FLUENCY HAMPERED BY EXCESSIVE MODIFICATION: The man on the horse got quickly off his mount and went hurriedly into the aforesaid patch of brush.

FLUENCY GAINED BY SPECIFIC NOUNS AND VERBS: The rider dismounted and darted into the thicket.

Do not let rhythm conflict with sense.

RHYTHM NOT ADAPTED TO SENSE: Advancing into the street, he stooped over the child and lifted it out of the way of the approaching car.

TEMPO INCREASED TO SUIT THE ACTION: He dashed out and snatched the child from the path of the car.

¹ To gain a feeling for prose rhythms read, preferably aloud, from the work of good writers. Notice that prose rhythms must be varied, must not fall into the regular beat of verse.

² To help you fit words to sense and to rhythms study word-lists like those in Roget's *Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases*.

Do not trip your reader by apologies or by unnecessary qualifications. If you have made an over-statement do not make your reader backtrack; revise to say what you mean—no more, no less.

FLUENCY HAMPERED BY AN INTERRUPTIVE STYLE AND BY CONFLICT OF WORDS WITH SENSE: Outside the snow was coming down as fast as it could, the wind blowing from every direction, so it seemed. The supply of snow in the clouds seemed never-ending, for it kept on falling until Friday noon.

FLUENCY GAINED BY MORE SKILLFUL CHOICE OF WORDS: Outside, the snow was falling fast; the wind swirled. Ceaselessly the snow fell, all night, all day, and on into the next, until at last on Friday noon there came a break in the clouds.

EXERCISE

A. Improve the following sentences.

1. When you revise strive for effective rhythms. Sense depends extensively on sound.
2. Pouring kerosene into the mixture while it is on the stove is inadvisable, since kerosene ignites readily. [Would short, sharp commands fit the sense better?]
3. A ground swell does not have the short choppy action of wave crests, but it has a force that white caps lack. [Find some long, slow, rolling words. Even one at the right spot would slow the sentence down and strengthen it.]
4. Everybody in town was there, or at least it seemed so. Every seat in the hall was occupied half an hour before the meeting was to begin, except for a few under the balcony. There was standing room only by the time the speakers arrived, extra chairs having been placed on the platform.
5. That was not the only thing the group demanded. Dedication immediately of a special site was insisted on.

B. Collect from books or magazines half a dozen pas-

sages wherein rhythms vary pleasantly or wherein sound helps to convey meaning. Radio programs offer examples by the hundred, if you are quick enough to seize and record them.

A CONSISTENT STYLE

- 67. Choose your style for a given piece of writing and stick to it.** Do not jar your reader by breaking a formal style with conspicuous colloquialisms or by growing suddenly formal in the middle of a colloquial essay.

In formal writing avoid contractions and expressions labeled *colloquial* by the dictionaries. Even in informal writing avoid colloquialisms which are informal to the point of giving offense.

CONSPICUOUSLY COLLOQUIAL, NOT PROPER IN MOST WRITING: It was plenty cold, but the wind had kind of quit blowing.

COLLOQUIAL, APPROPRIATE IN INFORMAL WRITING: It was a cold day, but there wasn't any wind blowing. [Loose constructions are permissible in informal writing.]

FORMAL: The day, though cold, was windless. [Notice that formal writing uses greater tension and subordination.]

JARRING BREAK IN STYLE: Brilliant and undeviating in intellect, he was a tireless worker and took a shot at writing as well as law.

CONSISTENTLY FORMAL: Brilliant and undeviating in intellect, he was a tireless worker and tried his talents at writing as well as law.

Mixed Imagery

NOTE 1.—Avoid phrases which may call up conflicting mental images. When using metaphor, simile, etc., carry one figure of speech through instead of shifting to another or dropping suddenly back into literal speech.

CONSISTENT STYLE

67

CRUDE: The Republicans have gained a foothold in the heart of the cotton belt.

RIGHT: The Republicans have gained a foothold in the South.

CRUDE: A key-note of sincerity should be the mainspring of a well-built speech. [*Key-note* suggests music; *mainspring* suggests mechanics; *well-built* suggests carpentry.]

RIGHT: A key-note of sincerity runs through a good speech. [*Or*] Sincerity should be the mainspring and motive of a speech. [*Or*] Sincerity is the foundation of a well-built speech.

CRUDE: He traveled a rough road and climbed with his burden the ladder of success, where he is a glowing example and guide to other men. [The suggestion conveyed to a reader prone to visualize is that a man starts out as a traveler, suddenly takes to hod-carrying, and then bursts into flame as a beacon light-house.]

RIGHT: He traveled a rough road, but found success. Other men follow in his steps.

INCONGRUOUS: Spring came scattering flowers, and there was rain a great per cent of the time. [This sentence mingles the language of poetry with the language of science. It should be fanciful, or else literal, throughout.]

RIGHT: Spring came scattering flowers and rain. [*Or*] Spring came with much rain and many flowers.

Dialectal Words, Barbarisms, Illiteracies

NOTE 2.—Avoid dialectal words; words which the dictionaries label *vulgar*, *illiterate*, *low*, or the like; and words and expressions that the dictionary does not print.

Dialectal words (sometimes called *provincialisms*) are words restricted to the speech of a district, with local peculiarities. Though it is unjust and unkind to regard them as illiterate blunders, they are so often used by illiterate persons that the social prejudice against them is strong.

all the further	complected	scairt
awful (= very)	nowheres	without (= unless)
burstd	reckon (= suppose)	undoubtably

EXERCISE

1. She was snappy in dress and stately in her walk.
2. At school he never caught on to his lessons and didn't make much of a hit with his teachers.
3. With his eye on future votes he kept a finger in every pie.
4. Burns' poetry most always makes me wonder whether he got a square deal.
5. The word "liberal" has meant a lot of different things, and so it doesn't make much sense until we define it.
6. Presently his folks were ushered into the warden's office.
7. Though a few of his enemies smelt a rat no one let the cat out of the bag and he died in the odor of sanctity.
8. Hitherto he hadn't run up against anyone of that type.
9. The shepherd stood wool-gathering while his flock grazed about him.
10. Let's have a rising vote, and then we'll know how everybody stands on the question.

GLOSSARY OF FAULTY DICTION

68. Use words intelligently and avoid faulty diction.

The following list includes

1. Words often confused, as *accept-except* or *affect-effect*
2. Words never correct, as *ain't*, *burstd*, *drownded*
3. Dialectal words (see § 67), as *right smart*, *somewheres*
4. Slang, as *to contact*
5. Words conspicuously colloquial (see § 67), as *blame on*, *enthuse*, *a ways*

GLOSSARY OF FAULTY DICTION

63

Accept and except. *Accept* means to *receive*; *except* as a verb means to *exclude* and as a preposition means *with the exception of*.

Affect and effect. *Affect* is not used as a noun; *effect* as a noun means *result*. As verbs, *affect* means to *influence in part*, *effect* means to *accomplish totally*. "The sound affected them strangely." "The medicine man effected a cure." *Affect* also has a special meaning, to *feign*. "She had an affected way of greeting people."

Ain't. Never correct. Say *I'm not*, *you [we, they] aren't*, *he [she, it] isn't*.

All the farther, all the faster. Dialectal. Use *as far as*, *as fast as* in such sentences as "It was all the farther he could swim."

Allusion and illusion. *Allusion* means a *reference*, *illusion* means a *deceptive appearance*. "A Biblical allusion." "An optical illusion."

Already and all ready. *Already* means *by this time* or *beforehand*; *all ready* means *wholly ready* or *everyone is ready*. "She has already solved the problem." "We are all ready to start rehearsals."

Alright. Not in good use. Use *all right*.

Altogether and all together. *Altogether* means *wholly*, *entirely*; *all together* means *collectively*, *in a group*. "He was altogether unhappy." "She was altogether too self-conscious." "They went all together to the theatre."

And which. Do not use *and which* unless you have already used *which* in the sentence.¹

WRONG: This is a vital problem and which we cannot study too closely.

RIGHT: This is a vital problem, which we cannot study too closely.

ALSO RIGHT: This is a problem which is vital and which we cannot study too closely.

¹ An exception must be made for sentences like the following. CORRECT: He told me what countries he had visited, and which ones he liked most.

Any place, anyplace. Colloquial when used for the adverb *anywhere* or the adverbial phrase *in any place*.

As. (a) Incorrect in the sense of *that* or *whether*. "I don't know *whether* [not *as*] I can tell you." "Not *that* [not *as*] I know."

(b) *As* : . . . *as* are correlatives. *Than* must not replace the second *as*.

Wrong: He is *as* swift or swifter than his brother.

Right: He is *as* swift as his brother, or swifter than he [is].

Also right, but clumsy: He is *as* swift as or swifter than his brother.

Wrong: He was *as* timid, or more timid than his sister.

Right: He was *as* timid as his sister, or more timid [than his sister was].

Also right: He was *as* timid as or more timid than his sister.

Awful. Means *filling with awe* or *filled with awe*. *Awful* is slang when used in the sense of *uncivil*, *serious*, or *ludicrous*, or (in the adverbial form) in the sense of *very*, *extremely*.

Balance. Colloquial when used in the sense of *remainder*.

Because. Not to be used for *the fact that*. "*The fact that* [not *Because*] he is absent is no reason why we should not proceed."

Between. Ordinarily used of two persons or things, in distinction to *among*, which is used of more than two.¹

Blame on. Colloquial for *put the blame on* or *blame*.

Faulty: Don't blame it on me.

Better: Don't blame me.

Born. Say "I was *born* [not *borned*] in 1917."

Burst. The past tense of *burst* is the same as the present.

¹ In certain collective relationships *among* does not convey the idea intended and *between* should be employed. **MULTIPLE CONTRAST:** There are marked temperamental differences between Slavs, Teutons, and Latins. **EACH ITEM CONSIDERED SEVERALLY IN RELATION TO EACH OF THE OTHERS:** Conferences between Ordway, Cantwell, and Leaman clarified all uncertainties as to their respective claims. **RECIPROCAL ACTION:** An alliance was effected between Germany, Italy, and Japan.

Bust or busted. Vulgar for *burst*.

RIGHT: Yesterday the water pipe burst. Last week the bank failed.

But what. *That* is often preferable. "I do not doubt *that* [not *but what*] he is honest."

Can and may. *Can* means *to be able*; *may* means *to have permission*. *Can* for *may* has a certain colloquial standing.

Cannot help but. A confusion of *can but* and *cannot help*. "I can but believe you"; or "I cannot help believing you"; not "I cannot help but believe you."

Caused by. Not to be used to refer to a verb or to the diffused idea of a clause (see *Dangling Participle*).

WRONG: He was disappointed, caused by the lateness of the train.

RIGHT: His disappointment was caused by the lateness of the train.

Claim. Means *to demand as a right*. Colloquial for *maintain* or *assert*.

Complected. Dialectal. *Light-complexioned* and *dark-complexioned*, though correct, are in certain instances long and awkward. Prefer *fair* and *dark*.

Considerable. Colloquial when used as an adverb. "He talked *considerably* [not *considerable*] about it."

To contact. Slang for *interview*, *talk to*, *discuss with*, *get in touch with*, *see*.

Could of. An illiterate form arising from slovenly pronunciation. Use *could have*. Avoid also *may of*, *must of*, *would of*.

Credible and creditable. *Credible* means *capable of belief* or *worthy of belief*; *creditable* means *meritorious*.

Different than. *Different from* is correct. *Than* is a conjunction. The idea of separation implied in *different* calls for a preposition, rather than a word of comparison.

Disremember. Not in good use.

Done. A gross error when used as the past tense of *do*, or as an adverb meaning *already*. "I *did* it [not *I done* it]."; "I've *al-ready* got [not *done* got] my lessons."

Don't. A contraction for *do not*, never to be used for *does not*.

The contraction of *does not* is *doesn't*.

Drowned. Vulgar for *drowned*.

Due to. To be used only when it refers definitely to a noun.

FAULTY: He refused the offer, due to his father's opposition.

RIGHT: His refusal of the offer was due to his father's opposition.

The noun *refusal* should be used instead of the verb *refused*. Then *due* will have a definite reference.

ALSO CORRECT: He refused the offer because of [or on account of] his father's opposition.

Emigrate and immigrate. *Emigrate* means to go out from a country, *immigrate* means to enter into a country. The same man may be an *emigrant* when he leaves Europe and an *immigrant* when he enters America.

Enthuse. Colloquial. Not in good use in formal writing.

Etc. An abbreviation for the Latin *et cetera*, meaning *and other* [things]. *Et* means *and*; therefore avoid *and etc.* Do not misspell the abbreviation by transposing *t* and *c*.

Etc. should be followed (as well as preceded) by a comma, even when inserted after a single word. "You will find stationery, etc., in the observation car."

Expect. Means to look forward to. Hardly correct in the sense of *suppose*.

Fine. Use cautiously as an adjective, and not at all as an adverb. Seek a more exact word.

Fix. Overused and often abused. Choose a more exact word when you can.

Former. Means the first or first named of two. Not to be used when more than two have been named. The corresponding word is *latter*.

For to. Incorrect for *to*. "I want you [not for you] to listen carefully." "He made up his mind to [not for to] accept."

Gent. A vulgar abbreviation of *gentleman*.

Good. An adjective, not an adverb.

GLOSSARY OF FAULTY DICTION

68

Wrong: He did good in mathematics.

Right: He did well in mathematics. He did good work in science.

Gotten. An old form now usually replaced by *got* except in such expressions as *ill-gotten gains*.

Guess. Expresses conjecture. Colloquial for *think*, *suppose*, or *expect* unless implying uncertainty.

Had of. Illiterate. "I wish I *had known* [not *had of known*] about it."

Had ought. Illiterate. "He *ought* [not *had ought*] to have resigned." "We *oughtn't* [not *hadn't ought*] to make this error."

Hanged and hung. *Hanged* is the correct past tense of *hang* in the sense *put to death*, *hanged on the gallows*; *hung* is the correct past tense for the general meaning *suspended*.

Hardly. Not to be used with a negative. See § 35.

Healthy and healthful. *Healthy* means *having health*; *healthful* means *giving health*. "Milk is healthful." "The climate of Colorado is healthful." "The boy is healthy." In colloquial usage the distinction is not always observed.

Hygienic and sanitary. Both words mean *pertaining to health*. *Hygienic* is used when the condition is a matter of personal habits or rules; *sanitary* is used when the condition is a matter of surroundings (water supply, food supply, sewage disposal, etc.) or the relations of numbers of people.

In. Often misused for *into*. "He jumped *into* [not *in*] the pond."

Instants and instance. *Instants* means *small portions of time*; *instance* means *an example*.

Intensives. Good writers do not ordinarily use *too*, *so*, or *such* by itself as an intensive. Instead they do one of three things: (1) omit the intensive altogether (probably the best treatment); (2) employ an intensive like *very*, *much*, *extremely*, or *indeed*, or (3) complete the thought of *too* with a following phrase, or the thought of *so* or *such* with a following *that* clause.

Informal: The story was too absurd.—Coal whined so piteously.—Wilberforce is such a fast walker.

BETTER (method 1 or 2): The story was absurd.—Coal whined piteously.—Wilberforce is an exceedingly fast walker.

BETTER (method 3): The story was too absurd for belief.—Coal whined so piteously that I let him in.—Wilberforce is such a fast walker that he almost meets himself coming back.

It's. Means *it is*, not to be written for the possessive *its*.

Kind of. (a) Colloquial when used to modify adjectives or verbs.

"He was *somewhat* [not *kind of*] lean." "She *half suspected* [not *She kind of suspected*] what was going on." (b) When using with a noun, do not follow by *a*. "That *kind of* man," not "That *kind of a* man."

Lady. A gentileism in many uses. Prefer *woman* in such expressions as these: "A woman I know"; "The woman in blue"; "A saleswoman [not *saleslady, washlady*]."

Later and latter. *Later* means *more late*, *latter* means *the second in a series of two*. The *latter* is used in conjunction with the phrase *the former*.

Lead and led. *Led* is the past tense of the verb *to lead*. *Lead* is the present tense.

Learn and teach. *Learn* means *to get knowledge of*; *teach* means *to give knowledge of or to*. "The instructor *teaches* [not *learns*] me physics." "He *learns* his lessons easily."

Leave and let. *Leave* means *to abandon*, *let* means *to permit*.

Less and fewer. *Less* refers to quantity; *fewer* refers to number. "He has *fewer* [not *less*] horses than he needs."

Liable, likely, apt. *Likely* merely predicts; *liable* conveys the additional idea of harm or responsibility. *Apt* applies usually to persons, in the sense of *having natural capability*, and sometimes to things, in the sense of *fitting, appropriate*. "It is likely to be a pleasant day." "I fear it is liable to rain." "He is liable for damages." "He is an apt lad at his books." "That is an apt phrase."

Lie and lay. *Lay*, a transitive verb, means *to cause to lie*. "I lay the book on the table and it lies there." A source of confusion between the two words is that the past tense of *lie* is *lay*.

I lie down to sleep.

I lay the book on the table.

I lay there yesterday.

I laid it there yesterday.

I have lain here for hours.

I have laid it there many times.

Like, as, as if. *Like* is not in good use as a conjunction; it may be followed by a noun. *As* is in good use as a conjunction; it may be followed by a clause. "He is tall like his father." "He is tall, as his father is." "It looks *as if* [not *like*] it were going to rain."

Literally. Do not use where you plainly do not mean it, as in the sentence, "I was literally tickled to death."

Locate. Colloquial for *settle* or *establish oneself*.

Lose and loose. *Lose* means *to cease having*, *loose* as a verb means *to set free*, and as an adjective, *free, not bound*.

Lose out. Not used in formal writing. Say *lose*.

Lots of. A mercantile term which has a dubious colloquial standing. Not in good literary use for *many* or *much*.

Might of. A vulgarism for *might have*.

Most. Colloquial for *almost*. "*Almost* [not *most*] all."

Neither. Used with *nor*, and not with *or*. "Neither the man whom his associates had suspected *nor* [not *or*] the one whom the police had arrested was the criminal." "She could neither paint a good picture *nor* [not *or*] play the violin well."

Nice. Means *delicate* or *precise*. *Nice* is used in a loose colloquial way to indicate general approval, but should not be so used in formal writing.

RIGHT: He displayed nice judgment. We had a *pleasant* [not *nice*] time.

Noplace. Dialectal for *nowhere*.

Not . . . no, not never, not hardly. In early English the double negative was in good use. In modern English the notion has gained ground that "two negatives cancel each other," or make an affirmative. Thus *not nobody* means *somebody*, and *not nowhere* suggests *somewhere*.

Nowhere near. Archaic and dialectal for *not nearly*.

Nowheres. Dialectal or vulgar.

O, Oh. *O* is ordinarily used with a noun in direct address; it is not separated from the noun by any marks of punctuation. *Oh* is ordinarily used as an interjection; it is followed by a comma or an exclamation point. *Oh* is sometimes used informally in direct address; it is followed by a comma. "Hear, O King, what thy servants would say." "Oh, he's falling!" "Oh, Mr. Blake, James wants you."

Of. Do not use for *have* in such combinations as *should have*, *may have*, *ought to have*.

Off of. Use *off* alone. "He jumped *off* [not *off of*] the platform."

On account of. Do not use as a conjunction. "He is feeble on account of his age [not *on account of he is old*]."

One, one's; he, his. The interchanging of *he* and *his* with *one* and *one's* is condemned by the older rhetorics, but allowed by modern usage. "One can only do one's best" is right, but formal. "One can only do his best" is informal, and correct.

Only. Place *only* where it cannot appear to modify the wrong word.

WRONG: He *only* spent ten dollars.

RIGHT: He spent *only* ten dollars.

Do not combine *only* with *no* or *not*.

WRONG: He *isn't only* three years old.

RIGHT: He *is only* three years old.

Do not use *only* in place of *but*.

WRONG: He would like to go *only* he hasn't time.

RIGHT: . . . *but* he hasn't time.

Ought to of. A vulgarism for *ought to have*.

Over with. Colloquial for *over*.

Pants. *Trousers* is the approved term in polite usage. *Pants* (from *pantaloons*) has found some degree of colloquial and commercial acceptance.

Party. Slang when used for *a person*, except in legal phrases.

GLOSSARY OF FAULTY DICTION

Phenomena. Plural. "It was an interesting *phenomenon* [not *phenomena*]."

Phone. A contraction not employed in formal writing. Say *telephone*.

Plenty. A noun; not in good use as an adjective or an adverb. "He had *plenty of* [not *plenty*] resources." "He had *resources in plenty* [not *resources plenty*]."

Practical and practicable. *Practical* means *not theoretical*; *practicable* means *capable of being put into practice*. "A practical man." "The arrangement is practicable."

Principal and principle. *Principal* as an adjective means *chief* or *leading*, *principle* as a noun means a *general truth* or *rule*. *Principal* as a noun means a *sum of money*, or the *chief official* of a school.

Proof and evidence. In a law court, *proof* is *evidence sufficient to establish a fact*; *evidence* is *whatever is brought forward in an attempt to establish a fact*. "The evidence against the prisoner was extensive but hardly proof of his guilt." In colloquial speech, *proof* is sometimes loosely used as a synonym for *evidence*.

Proposition. Means a *thing proposed*. Colloquial in the sense of *transaction*, *venture*, *commodity*, *convenience*, *difficulty*, *thesis*, or *doctrine*. "I will make this *proposition* [correct use]; he may accept it or not." "It is sure to be a paying *venture* [or *transaction* or *enterprise*, not *proposition*]."

Quiet and quite. *Quiet* is an adjective meaning *calm*, *not noisy*; *quite* is an adverb meaning *entirely* (avoid using as a synonym for *rather*).

Quite a. Colloquial in such expressions as *quite a while*, *quite a few*, *quite a number*.

Raise. Many persons feel that *rear* or *bring up* is preferable in speaking of children. "She *raised* sheep and *brought up* her seven children without help."

Rarely ever. Crude for *rarely*, *hardly ever*.

Real. Crude for *very* or *really*. "She was *very* [not *real*] intelligent." "He was *really* [not *real*] brave."

Remember of. Not to be used for *remember*.

Respectfully and respectively. *Respectfully* means in a courteous manner, *respectively* means in a way proper to each. "Yours respectfully [not *respectively*]." "He handed the commissions to Gray and Hodgins *respectively*."

Right smart and right smart of. Dialectal.

Rise and raise. *Rise* is an intransitive verb, *raise* is a transitive verb. "I rise to go home." "I raise vegetables." "I raise the stone from the ground."

Said meaning *before-mentioned*, *already referred to*. Good use in legal language only.

Same. No longer used as a pronoun except in legal documents. "He saw her drop the purse and restored it [not *the same*] to her."

Scarcely. Not to be used with a negative.

Seldom ever. Illiterate for *seldom hardly ever*.

Shall. Do not confuse with *will*. See § 55.

Sight. *A sight* or *a sight of* is colloquial for *many*, *much*, *a great deal of*. "*A great many* [not *a sight*] of them."

Sit and set. *Set*, a transitive verb, means *to cause to sit*. "He sets it in the corner and it sits there." The past tense of *sit* is *sat*.

I sit down.

He sat in this very chair.

He has sat there an hour

I always set it in its place.

I set it in its place yesterday.

I have always set it just here.

So. Not incorrect, but loose, vague, and often unnecessary.

(a) As an intensive, *so* has been christened "the feminine demonstrative."

HACKNEYED: I was so surprised.

BETTER: I was much surprised. [Or] I was surprised.

(b) The frequent use of *so* as a connective is a mark of amateurishness. *So* is an elastic word that covers a multitude of vague meanings. Language has need of such a word, and in many instances (especially when the relation between clauses is obvious and does not need to be pointed out) *so* serves well

enough. Use it, but not as a substitute for more exact connectives. Beware of falling into the *so* habit.

ABUSE OF *so* AS A VAGUE COORDINATING CONNECTIVE: So I went to call on Mrs. Woods, and so she told me about Mrs. White's new gown; so then I missed the car, and so of course our supper is late. [Strike out every *so*.]

ALLOWABLE ON THE COLLOQUIAL LEVEL: I was excited, so I missed the target.

In expressing reason or result do not always begin with a main clause and follow it with a trailing *so* clause. It is better to strike out *so* and subordinate the first clause, thus:

RIGHT: In my excitement I missed the target.

RIGHT: Because I was excited I missed the target.

RIGHT: Being excited, I missed the target

In expressing degree or manner prefer the form *so . . . that*:

RIGHT: I was so excited that I missed the target.

Some. Not to be used as an adverb. "She was *somewhat* [not *some*] better the next day."

WRONG: He studied some that night.

RIGHT: He did some studying that night.

Some place, someplace. Colloquial when used for the adverb *somewhere* or for the adverbial phrase *in any place* or *in some place*. *Some place* is two words, not one.

Somewheres. Dialectal. Use *somewhere*.

Species. Has the same form in singular and plural. "He discovered a new *species* [not *specie*] of sunflower."

Stationary and stationery. *Stationary* is an adjective meaning *fixed*; *stationery* is a noun meaning *writing materials*.

Statue, stature, statute. *Statue* means a *carved or molded figure*; *stature* means *height*, *statute* means a *law*.

Such. (a) To be completed by *that*, rather than by *so that*, when a result clause follows. "There was such a crowd *that* [not *so that*] he did not find his friends." (b) To be completed by *as*,

rather than by *that*, *who*, or *which*, when a relative clause follows. "I will accept such arrangements *as* [not *that*] may be made." "He called upon such soldiers *as* [not *who*] would volunteer for this service to step forward."

Superlatives should not be used as intensives. When they are used in making comparisons, the basis of the comparison should be supplied.

INFORMAL. This is the best fudge! She is the cleverest cat!

BETTER. This is delicious fudge! She is a clever cat! [*or a remarkably clever cat*]

ALSO BETTER: Of all the fudge I have ever tasted, this is the best.

Superior than. Not in good use for *superior to*.

Sure. *Sure* has a long and honorable history as an adverb, but in recent years *sure* as an adverb meaning *certainly*, *indeed* is regarded as slang. "It *surely* [not *sure*] was pleasant." In answer to the question, "Will you go?" *surely* is preferred. "[I will] *surely* [go]."

Suspicion. A noun. Dialectal when used as a verb.

Take and. Often unnecessary, sometimes crude.

REDUNDANT: He took the ax and sharpened it.

BETTER: He sharpened the ax.

CRUDE: He took and nailed up the box.

BETTER: He nailed up the box.

Tend. In the sense *to look after*, takes a direct object without an interposed *to*. *Attend*, however, is followed by *to*. "The milliner's assistant *tends* [not *tends to*] the shop." "I shall *attend to* your wants in a moment."

That as an intensive.

COLLOQUIAL WITH WORDS OF DEGREE OR EXTENT: He caught a fish *that* long.

DIALECTAL WITH WORDS DENOTING QUALITY OR ACTION: Your mother was *that* disturbed.

BETTER: Your mother was greatly disturbed. [*Or*] Your mother was so disturbed that she couldn't rest.

That there. Illiterate for *that*. "I want *that* [not *that there*] box of berries."

Them. Not to be used as an adjective. "*Those* [not *them*] boys."

There were or there was. Avoid the unnecessary use.

CRUDE: There were seventeen senators voted for the bill.

BETTER: Seventeen senators voted for the bill.

These kind (or sort) and those kind (or sort) are colloquial forms loosely used for *this kind*, *that kind*. *Kind* and *sort* are singular nouns and regularly take the singular adjectives *this*, *that*—not plural *these*, *those*. "Why do you buy *this kind* of shoes?" "I hate *that sort* of trousers."

This. Do not use *this* so loosely and vaguely that the reader fails to see what word or idea is referred to. See § 21.

FAULTY: The managers told him they would increase his salary if he would represent them in South America. He refused *this*.

BETTER: He refused *this offer*.

This here. Dialectal for *this*.

Those. Do not carelessly omit a relative clause after *those*.

FAULTY: He is one of those talebearers.

BETTER: He is a talebearer. [*Or*] He is one of those talebearers whom everybody dislikes.

Those kind, those sort. Ungrammatical.

Till. Do not carelessly misuse for *when*. "I had scarcely strapped on my skates *when* [not *till*] Henry fell through an air hole."

Transpire. Means *to give forth* or *to become known*.

RIGHT: The secret transpired.

Many authorities object to the use of *transpire* for *occur*.

RIGHT: The sale of the property *occurred* [not *transpired*] last Thursday.

Try. Colloquial when used as a noun.

Unique. Means *alone of its kind*, not *odd* or *unusual*.

United States. Ordinarily preceded by *the*. "The United States raised a large army." [Not "United States raised a large army."]

Up. Do not needlessly insert after such verbs as *end, rest, confess, settle*.

Used to could. Very crude. Say *used to be able to* or *once could*.

Very. Should be accompanied by *much* when used with the past participle. "He was *very much* [not *very*] pleased with his reception." "We were *much* [not *very*] inconvenienced by her visit."

Want to. Not to be used in the sense of *should, had better*. "You *should* [not *want to*] keep in good physical condition."

Way. Dialectal or colloquial when used for *away*. "*Away* [not *way*] below the average."

Ways. Colloquial for *way* in referring to distance. "A little *way* [not *ways*]."

When. (a) Not to be used for *that* in such a sentence as "It was in the afternoon that the races began." (b) A *when* clause is not to be used as a predicate noun. See § 54a.

Where. (a) Not to be used for *that* in such a sentence as "I see in the paper that our team lost the game." (b) A *where* clause is not to be used as a predicate noun. See § 54a.

Where at. Illiterate. "Where is he?" [Not "*Where is he at?*"]

Which. Do not use for *who* or *that* in referring to persons. "The friends *who* [not *which*] had loved him in his boyhood were still faithful to him."

Who. Do not use unnecessarily for *which* or *that* in referring to animals or things.

Will. Do not confuse with *shall*. See § 55.

Win out. Not used in formal writing or speaking.

Woods. The singular form should ordinarily be preferred. "*A wood* [not *A woods*]."

Would have. Do not use for *had* in *if* clauses. "If you *had* [not *would have*] spoken boldly, he would have granted your request."

Would of. A vulgarism for *would have*.

REVIEW OF DICTION

69

Yourself. Intensive or reflexive; do not use when the personal pronoun would suffice. "*You* [not *Yourself*] and your family must come."

You was. Illiterate. Use *You were* in both singular and plural.

EXERCISE

Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. Has each girl (all ready, already) packed her lunch?
2. Doesn't she (teach, learn) you to speak distinctly?
3. I am willing to (accept, except) the position.
4. (May, Can) I use the car this afternoon, father?
Yes, you (may, can) use the car if you can get it started.
5. The chickens were put (all together, altogether) in one pen.
6. They (ought, had ought) to tell her before she makes the choice.
7. If the rope is too (loose, lose) the bedroll will (loose, lose) its contents.
8. The (principal, principle) went to Chicago, where he was the (principal, principle) speaker at a convention.
9. It (must of, must have) been a wonderful game.
10. They can come (most, almost) any time.

69.

REVIEW OF DICTION

A. WORDINESS, JARGON

Strike out all that is superfluous or trite, and make the following sentences simple and exact.

1. Harry is an attractive boy, and he is the same age that I am.
2. There was much merry talk went on around the table.
3. The next point a pilot should try and make certain of is to have plenty of fuel.
4. I went and called my father and told him how he had a new calf, just born, in a straw stack.

5. When all is said and done their mistake in this instance was to a considerable extent forgivable.
6. His face showed indications of having come in contact with someone's fist.
7. Cows need plenty of water; in fact a cow should have about seven gallons a day. As regards temperature it cannot be absorbed until it reaches body temperature more or less, so it should be warmed to such a degree that it can be absorbed.
8. One should do nothing he might be ashamed of afterward in later years.
9. He was a man who was able to learn a great deal of life and God by being by himself, alone in the open country.
10. In the hall waited a *string of young men, composed of forty or fifty in number.*
11. The trio of three thieves conspired to form several plots together.
12. It was the next morning, and I started out early to go and visit my relatives.
13. The play was a farce throughout from beginning to end.
14. Owing to the fact that the owner wishes to move to a warmer climate, he has listed his home for sale.
15. I spent the time in wondering what sort of a person Miss Cothrew would be like.
16. This critic is not afraid to state the attitude, favorable or unfavorable, which he feels toward a writer, or a speaker or anyone.
17. The tramp is constantly hounded by the minions of the law.
18. Myself and my wife were the objects of much interest on the part of the employees.
19. As a consequence of the fact that Carl had suffered an injury to his ankle, it was deemed advisable by the medical men that he warm the substitutes' bench for the remainder of the pigskin brawl.
20. In the case of a 50-pound shell fired at a velocity of 3000 feet a second it might be said that it would represent less in re-

spect of momentum than a 3500 pound automobile traveling 15 miles an hour.

B. THE EXACT WORD

Get rid of all inaccurate words or expressions. Phrase each statement as accurately as you can.

1. I make application for the position of watching your warehouse and mill, the salary to be as usual.
2. I have never been released from a position because of ill treatment to customers.
3. She looked nice in most any kind of clothing.
4. I have never seen a group of men where they impressed me as looking so much alike.
5. She is not overly enthused about becoming acquainted with him.
6. If the snow had lasted one more day, the park would have been minus half its trees.
7. If there is money to be raised for an athletic proposition, the Booster's Club puts it over.
8. This sale at the Koke Drug Store offers a great opportunity to save finances.
9. His conscience of what was right and what was wrong was only half developed.
10. Finally, however, fortune awarded the men's patience, and the lost children came into view playing on an old haystack.
11. Each time it would lighten I would be able to negotiate fifteen feet of the trail, and if the flashes came often I could navigate about two miles an hour.
12. The African Methodist Church was demolished by the late hurricane so that it was condemned by the building inspector.
13. Thousands of casualties were had in the first World War through the use of gas.

14. A peculiar thing about the building is the stone from which it is made and which is very nice.
15. Cleanliness is a noticeable thing about these Swedish towns.
16. Can you feature anything so easy to do as finding fault is for the habitual fault-finder?
17. The bright lights and excitement of the city activities took in all her interests.
18. Farther on down the way a grading gang of convicts had been working and had succeeded in disarranging the road until it could hardly be gone over at a low rate of speed.
19. Distance from market is an important thing to be considered in choosing a truck farm.
20. On looking for a place on the flagstaff on which to carve your initials, you find that it is almost an impossibility without defacing the initials of someone else.

C. WORDS SOMETIMES CONFUSED IN MEANING

Strike out the incorrect forms.

1. The poor people were endangered by the (unhealthy, unhealthful) surroundings of the factories.
2. Events of earliest childhood often profoundly (affect, effect) one's later life.
3. (Almost, most) everybody is glad to see spring come.
4. I was forced to crawl (in, into) a hollow log to escape the rain.
5. They (hanged, hung) his clothes just out of reach.
6. Doctor Harvey or Doctor Harris can see you; the (later, latter) cannot make an appointment (later, latter) than three o'clock.
7. He dislikes politics; he would not (accept, except) the nomination.
8. Please make the belt tighter; it is too (lose, loose) for comfort.

REVIEW OF DICTION

69

9. The aristocrats wrote on (stationery, stationary) that was embossed in gold.
10. The (statue, statute, stature) at the entrance to the park was broken by a falling tree.
11. Please keep your dog (quiet, quite), or the neighbors will complain.
12. Clouds are gathering; we are (liable, likely, apt) to have a cooling shower this afternoon.
13. Alvin wanted his father to (teach, learn) him to drive the family car.
14. Mr. Crosby was the (principal, principle) speaker at the luncheon.
15. If you will (raise, rise) the shade I can see to thread this needle.
16. Are you girls (all ready, already) for a three-mile spin?
17. To travel five hundred miles a day is (altogether, all together) too tiring.
18. During the recent flood the (hygienic, sanitary) conditions in the city were very bad.
19. Will you sit quietly if I (let, leave) you hold the baby?
20. Albert has (fewer, less) magazines to distribute than Melvin.

D. DICTION IN GENERAL

Give each sentence in clear and correct form.

1. In the South Sea Islands I came to a different world (than, from) the one I had left behind in the States.
2. Our grandparents (formerly, formally) lived in a sparsely populated country where they could do almost as they pleased.
3. We might as well (of, have) talked all night, because it was so cold we couldn't sleep.
4. There are many types of girls, (like, just as) there are numerous types of everything else.
5. I might (of, have) done differently; I am not sure.

6. He never wore a coat, but he (most, almost) always wore an old vest.
7. On a sweltering hot day (myself and my friend, a friend and I) started off on a thirty mile hike.
8. It looked (like, as if) an old hen had stuck her feet in the inkwell and walked all over the paper.
9. He thought that his latest plan was a failure (like the others had been, as the others had been).
10. You can imagine how quickly I took my hand (off of, off) the doorknob.
11. I get more kick out of athletics than studies.
12. Whether or not a kid acquires an education is entirely up to that kid.
13. The first thing the bear noticed was the meat, and he sure started right in on it.
14. We saw two guys fixing a fence.
15. My business was going good, and I was all set to rake in a fortune.
16. The guys all think that it is awfully funny that I can't go anyplace.
17. It is up to nature to do her stuff and reclaim this dust-bowl area.
18. If you become real interested in the game the time passes real fast.
19. He snagged a coal car near the engine so if a brakey threw him off he could hop on again at the back end.
20. I got through the examination fine, though I didn't hurt myself burning the midnight oil.



Spelling



SPELLING

Anyone who wishes can become a good speller if he goes to work in the right way. Many poor spellers give up the struggle because the problem seems too big for them to solve. But the problem is not really so big as it seems.

First, a small number of common words is accountable for most of the errors. Second, mastery of one hundred forms breeds power to master other words; a *habit* of good spelling can be established. Third, the one or two particular faults that make a certain person spell badly can be analyzed and cured. Fourth, four simple rules control thousands of words.

Do not expect an overnight miracle; but do believe that a few minutes a day of well-directed digging can in a few months uproot bad spelling habits and make you a good speller. When you are writing, put a question mark over any word you have doubts about, and verify the spelling before handing in the work.

Use a dictionary for new or difficult words, but do not lean on it too heavily. When you look up a word impress it in some way on your mind. Link it to something you already know; notice its derivation. Pronounce it in syllables. Picture it. Do not just copy it thoughtlessly into your work and then erase it from your mind. Make it stick.

STUDYING YOUR OWN ERRORS

- 70.** Write in a notebook the correct spelling of every word you misspell. Keep two lists—one for Stray Errors (words you seldom use or rarely misspell) and one for Common Words Repeatedly Misspelled. The act of recording the correct form may be enough treatment for the stray errors; the others will require drastic measures. Always put a mark after a word for each time you misspell it. If a word often recurs devote some very special attention to it. It has evidently formed a deep habit groove that will take hard grinding to efface. Make the handwriting your best, for two purposes: one, to help the right form to register through your eyes as well as through your hand; two, to prevent a hasty look from giving you a wrong form.

Do not make such recording a mere mechanical jotting down. Try to discover why you misspell a word. Focus your whole mind on it. Perhaps one fault accounts for all your trouble; perhaps a combination of faults. Apply the appropriate remedy.

Do you distort syllables or omit letters? Practice with ear and tongue (see § 71).

Have you a wobbly eye? Do you misspell many common words? Do you stumble in reading aloud, read one word for another? Teach yourself to see what is really there, to see every letter, to picture words in your mind. Do you stumble over the trouble-spots that have tripped countless poor spellers? Focus your attention on those spots. Write them in bold letters, or work out some memory aids for them (see § 72).

Do you confuse one word with another something like it? Learn to connect spelling and meaning (see § 73).

Do you have trouble with *ie* words, plurals, prefixes and suffixes, compounds? Learn to apply the rules (see § 74-78).

Perhaps your difficulty is none of these. Set yourself to find out just what causes your trouble. Persist with the remedy until you know how to spell.

Dictionaries

NOTE 1.—No one is able to spell all unusual words on demand, but everyone must spell correctly even unusual words in formal writing. You have time or must take time to consult a dictionary. The best dictionaries are *Webster's New International Dictionary*, the *New Standard Dictionary* (less conservative than Webster's), the *Century Dictionary and Cyclopaedia*, and *Murray's New English Dictionary* (also called the *Oxford Dictionary*; very thorough, each word being illustrated with numerous quotations to show historical development). A small dictionary (the price is two to five dollars) should be accessible to each student who cannot buy the larger volumes. The best are the *Thorndike Century Senior Dictionary*, *Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*, the *New Century Dictionary*, the *Winston Simplified Dictionary*, the *College Standard Dictionary*, and the *Concise Oxford Dictionary*.

Simplified Spelling

NOTE 2.—The Simplified Spelling Board recommends such forms as *tho*, *thru*, *enuf*, *quartes*, *catalog*, *program*. If you employ these forms you must use them consistently. Many writers oppose simplified spelling; many advocate it; many compromise. Others desire to supplant our present alphabet

with one more nearly phonetic, and prefer, until this fundamental reform takes place, to preserve our present spelling as it is.

EXERCISE

1. With the help of the questions in this article analyze both your Common Words list and your Stray Errors list. Group the words under the numbers of the articles which you think will give you the greatest help with them. Arrange your lists alphabetically.
2. Whenever you misspell a word analyze your misspelling and insert the word in the proper classification in your list.
3. Whenever your instructor writes 70 x on one of your papers, do the exercise that your classified list shows as the most promising cure for your present error.

SPELLING BY EAR AND BY CAREFUL PRONUNCIATION

- 71. Let ear and voice help you to spell.** The ear-minded in particular, but others too, may gain accuracy by oral spelling—both speaking and listening. See Exercise 1 below for a useful method.

All students may get help with some words by exaggeratedly careful pronunciation and by speaking the words in syllables. The list below contains words in which slovenly pronunciation may cause errors. Add others from your own list.

Omitted Sounds	Extra Sounds	Transposed Sounds
(Be sure to put in all the sounds.)	(Be sure not to add any sounds.)	(Be sure not to switch the sounds.)
candidate	athletics	cavalry
considerable	casualty	children
222		

Omitted Sounds	Extra Sounds	Transposed Sounds
curiosity	disastrous	<i>hundred</i>
everybody	drowned	<i>irrelevant</i>
generally	entrance	<i>perform</i>
going	grievous	<i>perspiration</i>
government	height	<i>prefer</i>
history	jealous	<i>prejudice</i>
laboratory	lightning	<i>prescription</i>
length	mischievous	<i>tragedy</i>
liable	momentous	
literature	original	
quantity	problem	
representative	remembrance	
sophomore	similar	
	suffrage	
	umbrella	

Logical Kinship in Words

NOTE.—Learn where the trouble-spot is in words that you mis-spell. Find help in spelling a difficult word by thinking of related words. Often the trouble-spot is in the vowel of an unaccented syllable, and you can find help in thinking of a related word in which the troublesome syllable is accented. To think of *ridiculous* will prevent your writing *a* for the second *i* of *ridicule*; to think of *ridicule* will prevent your writing *e* for the first *i* of *ridiculous*. To think of *prepare* will help you to write *preparation*; to think of *preparation* will help you to write *preparatory*. To think of *busy* will save you from switching *i* and *s* in *business*. To think of the prefixes *re-* (meaning *again*) and *dis-* (meaning *not*), and the verbs *commend* and *appoint*, will prevent your writing *recommmend* or *disappoint* with a double *c* or *s*.

CAUTION.—The relationship between words is not always a safe guide to spelling. Observe *four, forty; nine, ninth; maintain, maintenance; please, pleasant; speak, speech; prevail, prevalent*. See the list of pairs of words under § 73.

EXERCISE

1. Get a partner, preferably an ear-minded student with a list similar to your own. Pool your lists, making sure that every word is correctly spelled; or use the book list. While both look attentively at a word, let one pronounce and spell it, the other listen. Now let the listener look away while the partner spells the word again from the list. Now spell in unison, the listener still looking away. Change duties and repeat.

ALTERNATIVE: Apply the general method just described to all words in the list given above.

2. Copy the following words slowly, pronouncing the syllables as you write:

accidentally	defer	finally
accommodate	definite	further
accurately	description	goddess
arctic	despair	government
artistically	different	grammar
athletics	dining room	grievous
benefit	dinned	hundred
boundary	disappoint	hurrying
burst	divide	instinct
candidate	divine	laboratory
casualty	eighth	length
cavalry	emphatically	library
cigarette	entirely	lightning
color	everybody	literature
commission	excellent	might have (<i>not</i>
curiosity	February	might of)

mischievous	prescription	sophomore
naturally	primitive	specialty
necessary	privilege	strictly
occasionally	probably	superintendent
omission	quantity	surprise
opinion	realize	temperament
opportunity	really	temperance
optimist	recognize	temperature
organize	recommend	tragedy
partner	reverence	usually
perform	scenery	varieties
perhaps	separate	ventilate
perspiration	should have (<i>not</i>	whether
physiology	should of)	

3. Spell syllable by syllable the words in the list that give you trouble, pronouncing after each syllable the sound of that syllable and the sound of the entire word to that point. (See § 83 for a treatment of syllabication.) Example:

a-c, ac-
 c-o-m, com, accom-
 m-o, mo, accommo-
 d-a, da, accommoda-
 t-i-o-n, tion, accommodation

4. Write the nouns corresponding to the following verbs:
prepare, allude, govern, represent, incline, know, prefer.
5. Write the adjectives corresponding to the following nouns and the nouns corresponding to the following adjectives:
desperation, ridiculous, miraculous, grammatical, arithmetical, busy, academy, origin.

SPELLING BY EYE AND BY VISUALIZING

- 72. Make full use of the eye in learning to spell. Teach yourself to observe written or printed words so accurately that a**

false spelling or misprint will stand out like a deformity. Learn to visualize. Practice looking attentively at a word, then looking away (or closing your eyes) and trying to see the word before you in the air, or to picture the page with the word on it. Look back at the word for verification. Be sure your eyes do not play tricks with you and show you an arrangement that is not there. Get used to the look of words correctly spelled in your own handwriting, so that when you proofread your papers errors will jump at you.

Learn where the trouble-spot is; write the word several times with the trouble-spot emphasized in capitals or in boldfaced letters. The picture of the word, so written, will impress itself on your memory.

Learn to divide words into syllables; then problems like the doubling of consonants (see § 75) will be more clear. As special training, copy the following words, noting carefully whether the consonant sound at the junction of syllables is given once or twice.

ac com mo date	com mit tee	im ag in a tion
ad dress	com mis sion	im me di ate
be gin ning	o mis sion	mis spell
de fer	oc ca sion	writ ing
dif fer	oc cur rence	writ ten

EXERCISE

Read a sentence until you know it without the book. Close your eyes and try to see each word before you. Then write it (without looking at the book) trying to

picture the words as they were on the page. Then compare and analyze any mistake.

1. It's necessary to stretch the cellophane really tight.
2. They're all right, but we should have preferred separate tables.
3. Neither plane accommodates ninety passengers.
4. Their car was losing its polish and their equipment was noticeably shabby.
5. Formerly your preparations were made too hurriedly; nowadays you're always ready beforehand.

Ask someone else to check your work. Note carefully the type of error you are most inclined to make. What does it tell you about your power of observation?

MISLEADING RESEMBLANCES BETWEEN WORDS

- 73. Guard against misspelling a word because it bears a superficial resemblance, in sound or appearance, to some other word.** When a likeness between two words causes you to misspell one or the other or to use one in place of the other, notice where the error occurs and then focus your attention on *one* of the words. Learn it and its use thoroughly, inventing a memory device to impress it on your mind. It does not matter how silly the device may be if it does the work. If you confuse *piece* with *peace*, "a *PIECE* of *PIE*" will help you to remember which is which.

Do not confuse the following prefixes, which have no logical connection:

<i>ante-</i> (before)	<i>anti-</i> (against, opposite)
<i>de-</i> (from, about)	<i>dis-</i> (apart, away, not)
<i>per-</i> (through, entirely)	<i>pre-</i> (before)

List of Words Often Confused

accept (to take)	breath (noun)	decent (adjective)
except (to exclude, with exclusion of)	breathe (verb)	descent (downward slope or motion)
advice (noun)	canvas (a cloth)	dissent (a disagree- ment)
advise (verb)	canvass (to solicit)	dual (adjective)
affect (to influence)	capital (a city)	duel (noun)
effect (to accomplish)	capitol (a building)	formally (in a formal way)
aisle (a passage)	clothes (garments)	formerly (in time past)
isle (an island)	cloths (pieces of cloth)	forth
allusion (a reference)	coarse (not fine)	forty
illusion (a deceiving appearance)	course (route, method of behavior)	four
all right	conscience (an inner moral sense)	fourth
almost	conscious (aware)	freshman (noun and adjective)
already	dairy	freshmen (never adj.)
altogether	diary	gambling (wagering)
always	desert (a barren country)	gamboling (frisking)
alley (a narrow way)	dessert (food)	guard
ally (a helper)	device (noun)	regard
altar (for worship)	devise (verb)	hear
alter (to change)	dining room	here
angel (a celestial be- ing)	dinning	hinder
angle (a corner)	disappear	hindrance
baring (making bare)	disappoint	holly (a tree)
barring (obstructing)	disavowal	holy (hallowed, sa- cred)
bearing (carrying)	dissatisfaction	wholly (altogether)
born (brought into being)	dissimilar	
borne (carried)	dissipate	
	dissuade	

hoping (from <i>hope</i>)	perceive	recede
hopping	perform	supersede
instance (an example)	persevere	prece' dence (act or right of preceding)
instants (periods of time)	persuade	prec' e dents (things said or done before, now used as au- thority or model)
its (possessive pro- noun)	purchase	presence (state of be- ing present)
it's (contraction of <i>it is</i>)	pursue	presents (gifts)
later (comparative of <i>late</i>)	personal (private, in- dividual)	prevail
latter (the second)	personnel (the body of persons engaged in some activity)	prevalent
lead (present tense)	Philippines	principal (chief, lead- ing, the leading of- ficial of a school, a sum of money)
led (past tense)	Filipino	principle (a general truth)
lessen (verb)	plain (clear; adjec- tive)	quiet (still)
lesson (noun)	plain (flat region; noun)	quite (completely)
loose (free, not bound)	plane (flat; adjective)	respectfully ("Yours respectfully")
lose (to suffer the loss of)	plane (geometrical term; noun)	respectively (in a way proper to each —should never be used to close a let- ter)
maintain	planed (past tense of <i>plane</i>)	rite (ceremony)
maintenance	planned (past tense of <i>plan</i>)	write
nineteenth	pleasant	seize
ninetieth	please	siege
ninety	precede	
ninth	proceed } these three succeed } are the exceed } "double e group"	
past (adj., adv., prep.)	concede	
passed (past tense)	intercede	
peace (a state of calm)		
piece (a fragment)		

shone (past tense of <i>shine</i>)	stature (height, figure)	village
shown (past participle of <i>show</i>)	statute (a law)	villain
sight (view, spectacle)	steal (to take by theft)	wandering
site (situation, a plot of ground reserved for some use)	steel (a metal)	wondering
cite (to bring forward as evidence)	than	weak (not strong)
speak	then	week (seven days)
speech	their (belonging to them)	weather
stationary (not moving)	there (in that place)	whether
stationery (writing materials)	they're (they are)	whole (entire)
statue (a sculptured likeness)	till	hole (an opening)
	until	who's (who is)
	to	whose (the possessive of <i>who</i>)
	too	your (indicates possession)
	two	you're (contraction of <i>you are</i>)

Suggestion for Practice

Select from the list above five pairs that trouble you. (If none of these bother you, think of five pairs that do.) Create devices for memorizing them. Make sensible sentences, using each troublesome word.

EXERCISE

1. The scene was laid in a cathedral where we could see (altar, alter) boys (baring, bearing, bareing) candles up the (aisle, isle).
2. He was (too, two, to) (weak, week) to travel. They had to alter (their, they're, there) plans and sleep on the (dessert, desert) sand.

3. The (forth, fourth) (coarse, course) consisted of a (piece, peace) of melon which was (quite, quiet) green.
4. The (clothes, cloths) which he wore to school were made of a (plane, plain), (course, coarse) material.
5. We should (accept, except) his (advice, advise) and pay the full amount of the (principal, principle).

WORDS IN EI OR IE

Write i before e

When the sound is long ee—

Except after c.

EXAMPLES:

<u>i</u> before <u>e</u>			except after <u>c</u>	
achieve	field	niece	ceiling	deceit
apiece	fiend	retrieve	conceive	receipt
believe	grieve	shield	conceit	perceive
chief	lien	shriek	deceive	receive

EXCEPTIONS: Neither financier seized either species of weird leisure.¹

EXERCISE

Write the following words, supplying *ei* or *ie*:

bel__ve	br__f	conc__t	perc__ve	shr__k
gr__ve	l__sure	c__ling	f__nd	w__rd
y__ld	s__ze	dec__ve	n__ce	ap__ce
f__ld	bel__f	ch__f	retr__ve	th__f

¹ *Weird* and *seize* are the only exceptions that students have much trouble with. A few uncommon exceptions like *signior*, *inveigle*, *plebeian*, *sheik* may be disregarded.

DOUBLING A FINAL CONSONANT

75. Monosyllables and words accented on the final syllable, if they end in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel, double the consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel.

Examples:

(a) Words derived from monosyllables:

pen-ned	rid-dance
plan-ned	fit-test
sit-ting	lug-gage
thin-ning	sad-dest
fat-ter	hop-ped

(b) Words derived from words accented on the final syllable:

occur-rence	omit-ted
commit-tee	admit-tance
rebut-tal	excel-lent
compel-ling	begin-ning

NOTE 1.—The primary word must first be found. To decide whether *begging* contains two *g*'s, we must first think of *beg*. Then there are three distinct steps in applying the rule. (1) The primary word must be a monosyllable or a word accented on the final syllable. *Hut* and *alloy* meet this test; *open* does not. *Deferred* and *differed*, *preferred* and *professed*, *committed* (or *committee*) and *prohibited* double or refrain from doubling the final consonant of the primary word according to the position of the accent. The seeming discrepancy between *preferred* and *preferable*, between *conferred* and *conference*, is due to a shifting of the accent to the first syllable in *preferable* and *conference*. (2) The primary word must end in one consonant. *Trace*, *oppose*, *interfere*, *help*, *reach*, and *perform* fail to meet this test, and

therefore in derivatives do not double the last consonant. *Assurance* has one *r*, as it should have; *occurrence* has two *r*'s, as it should have. (3) The final consonant of the primary word must be preceded by a single vowel. This principle excludes the extra consonant from *needy*, *daubed*, and *proceeding*, and gives it to *running*.

NOTE 2.—After *q*, *u* has the force of *w*. Hence *quitting*, *quizzes*, *squatter*, *acquitted*, *equipped*, and similar words are not really exceptions to the rule.

EXERCISE

1. Write the present participle (in *-ing*) of *pan*, *shin* (not *shine*), *dim*, *run*, *rid* (compare *ride*), *bet*, *benefit*, *slip*, *chat*, *fan*, *hit*, *pad*.
2. Write the past tense (in *-ed*) of *rob* (not *robe*), *prefer*, *occur* (compare *assure*), *char* (compare *share*), *bar* (compare *bare*), *plug* (compare *plunge*), *omit*, *admit* (compare *admire*), *pin* (not *pine*).

DROPPING FINAL E BEFORE A SUFFIX BEGINNING WITH A VOWEL

- 76.** Words that end in silent e drop the e before a suffix beginning with a vowel, but retain the e before a suffix beginning with a consonant. Examples:

admire, admiring	allure, alluring	pure, purely
double, doubling	inspire, inspiration	hire, hiring
note, notable	insure, insurance	care, careful
fame, famous	use, usage	use, useful
grieve, grievance	serve, servant	state, statement

EXCEPTION 1.—Of the exceptions some retain the *e* to prevent confusion with other words. Examples: *dyeing*, *singeing*,

mileage, acreage, hoeing, shoring, agreeing. The exceptions cause comparatively little trouble. One rarely sees *hoing* or *shoring*; one often sees *hopeing* and *inviteing*.

EXCEPTION 2.—After *c* or *g*, the *e* is retained before a suffix beginning with *a* or *o* or *u*. The purpose of this retention is to preserve the soft sound of the *c* or *g*. (Observe that *c* and *g* have the hard sound in *cable, gable, cold, go.*)

Examples: *peaceable, changeable, noticeable, serviceable, outrageous, courageous, advantageous.*

IMPORTANT EXCEPTION 3.—*Argument, judgment, truly.*

EXERCISE

1. Write the present participle of the following words: *grope, suffice, live, save, strive, serve, use, come, hope, invite, insure, place, change, have, shake.*
2. Write the adjectives which correspond to the following nouns: *hygiene, force, love, hope, nerve.*
3. Write the nouns which correspond to the following verbs: *achieve, please, admire, insure, use, guide, serve, inspire.*
4. Write the present participle of the following words: *dye, shoe.*
5. Write the *-ous* or *-able* form of the following words: *note, move, fame, service, insure, love, trace, advantage, advise, courage.*

PLURALS

77a. Most nouns add s or es to form the plural:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
book	books	mosquito	mosquitoes
river	rivers	potato	potatoes
pencil	pencils	domino	dominoes
handful	handfuls	hero	heroes
cupful	cupfuls	echo	echoes
armful	armfuls	Negro	Negroes

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
cameo	cameos	Adams	Adamses
auto	autos	Jones	Joneses
piano	pianos	shelf	shelves ¹
Eskimo	Eskimos	half	halves ¹
solo	solos	quiz	quizzes ²

b. Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant (or by u as w) change the y to i and add es to form the plural:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
fly	flies	lady	ladies
sky	skies	party	parties
soliloquy	soliloquies	lily	lilies

Other nouns in y form the plural in the usual way:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
alley	alleys	donkey	donkeys
key	keys	day	days
boy	boys	guy	guys

c. Compound nouns usually form the plural by adding s or es to the principal word. Examples:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
son-in-law	sons-in-law	stand-by	stand-bys
passer-by	passers-by	leave-taking	leave-takings

d. Letters, signs, and sometimes figures, add 's to form the plural:

EXAMPLES: Cross your t's and dot your i's; p's; \$'s; 3's or 3s.

¹ *f* changes to *v* for the sake of euphony.

² Nouns ending in a sibilant sound like *s*, *sh*, *x*, or *z* form the plural in *es*.

e. A few nouns follow old declensions:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
ox	oxen	man	men
child	children	woman	women
goose	geese	sheep	sheep
foot	feet	deer	deer
	mice		swine

f. Words from foreign languages usually retain the foreign plural:

Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
alumnus	alumni	analysis	analyses
alumna	alumnae	basis	bases
focus	foci (or focuses)	crisis	crises
fungus	fungi (or funguses)	oasis	oases
radius	radii (or radiuses)	parenthesis	parentheses
datum	data	thesis	theses
medium	media (or mediums)	tableau	tableaux (or tableaus)
phenomenon	phenomena		
Mr.	Messrs. (Messieurs)	Mrs.	Mmes. (Mesdames)

EXERCISE

Write the singular and plural of the following words

key	ladies	halves	sheep	parenthesis
toy	loaf	quiz	feet	Mr.
day	selves	Adams	swine	Mrs.
boy	armfuls	daughter-in-law	man	datum
party	cupful	pass	thesis	oasis

COMPOUNDS

Compound Adjectives

- 78a. Use a hyphen between two or more words which serve as a single adjective before a noun: *well-kept* lawn, *up-to-date* methods, *twelve-inch* main, *normal-school* teacher, *iron-bound* bucket, *twentieth-century* ideas, a *devil-may-care* expression, a *twenty-dollar-a-week* clerk.

Similar words placed *after* the noun are not compounded:

The lawn is *well kept*. Methods *up to date* in every way.

Adverbs in *-ly* are not compounded:

nicely kept lawn, *securely guarded* treasure.

Use a hyphen in compound numbers from twenty-one to ninety-nine:

Twenty-second Street

Twenty-third Psalm

thirty-five cents

ninety-eight dollars

one hundred and one men

NOTE 1.—The two parts of a fraction are hyphenated only when the two parts are used as a single adjective before a noun:

a *three-fourths* part

a *one-third* share

A hyphen is not necessary when the parts are read separately as adjective plus noun:

three fourths of my life

one third of his fortune

thirty hundredths

thirty-one hundredths

one thirty-second of an inch

Words Written Separate**b. Write separate the following words:**

all right	in order to	post office	high school
en route	in spite of	post card	no one
et cetera	in fact	parcel post	some day

Words Written Solid**Write solid (without a hyphen) the following words:**

anywhere	almighty	overlook	nowadays
everywhere	almost	overrun	tomorrow
nowhere	already	overtake	indeed
somewhere	although	overthrow	someone
	altogether		airport
wherever		outdoors	newspaper
whenever	anybody	outcome	classroom
whoever	everybody	outcry	textbook
whichever	nobody		semicolon
whatever	somebody	upon	workshop
however		into	foreman
	anyhow	within	blueprint
myself	somehow	thereupon	typewritten
yourself		throughout	horsepower
herself	anything	moreover	a blowout
himself	everything	inasmuch	a knockout
itself	nothing	nevertheless	a touchdown
ourselves	something		a windup

Use of a Dictionary**c. Consult a dictionary for all words that do not follow the simpler rules. Study the following list:**

mother-in-law	self-confidence	all-American	V-shaped
sons-in-law	self-educated	anti-Masonic	ex-president

SPELLING LIST

79

jack-o'-lantern	self-made	non-Arvan	pre-war
men-of-war	self-governed	pro-British'	ultra-violet

EXERCISE

Copy the following expressions, inserting hyphens where they are necessary: *half baked pancakes, two dollar gloves, a hand me down suit a twenty dollar a week clerk, a touch me not expression, faces much wrinkled, jumping off place, two headed calves, night blooming lily, an out at elbows coat, a coat out at elbows, twenty five feet of one inch pipe, the fortunate president elect, his prospective son in law, twenty five dollar bill: is the same as one half of two hundred dollars, a self made man, a well lighted workshop, this workshop is well lighted, high heeled boots, boots with high heels.*

SPELLING LIST

79. Study until you are able to spell accurately in tests the two hundred boldfaced words of the following list.

Study the not-boldfaced words until you reach a degree of accuracy that satisfies your instructor (in many schools upper classmen are held to an accuracy of 90 per cent).

absurd	affects	always	arctic
academy	aggravate	amateur	argument
accept	airplane	among	arising
accidentally	alley	analogous	arithmetic
accommodate	allotted	analysis	arrange
accumulate	all right	angel	arrival
accustom	ally	angle	ascend
acquainted	already	annual	asks
acquitted	altar	anxiety	athletic
across	alter	apparatus	audience
addressed	altogether	appearance	auxiliary
adviser	alumnus	appropriate	awkward

balance	clothes	derived	embarrass
barbarous	coarse	descend	eminent
baring	column	describe	encouraging
barring	coming	description	enemy
baseball	commission	despair	equipped
based	committee	desperate	especially
bearing	comparative	destroy	etc.
becoming	compel	device	everybody
before	compelled	devise	exaggerate
beggar	competent	dictionary	exceed
begging	concede	difference	excellent
beginning	conceivable	digging	except
believing	conferred	dilemma	exceptional
benefited	conquer	dining room	exhaust
biscuit	conqueror	dinning	exhilarate
boundaries	conscience	disappear	existence
brilliant	conscientious	disappoint	expense
Britain	considered	disavowal	experience
Britannica	continuous	discipline	explanation
buoyant	control	disease	familiar
bureau	controlled	dissatisfied	fascinate
business	cooperate	dissipate	February
busy	countries	distinction	fiery
	course	distribute	fifth
calendar	courteous	divide	finally
candidate	courtesy	divine	financier
can't	cruelty	doctor	foreign
cemetery	cylinder	don't	forfeit
certain		dormitories	formally
changeable	dealt	drudgery	formerly
changing	debater	dying	forth
characteristic	deceitful		forty
chauffeur	decide	ecstasy	fourth
choose	decision	effects	frantically
chose	deferred	eighth	fraternity
chosen	definite	eliminate	

SPELLING LIST

79

freshman (adj.)	incidentally	loose	noticeable
friend	incidents	lose	nowadays
furniture	incredulous	losing	
	independence	lying	oblige
gallant	indispensable		obstacle
gambling	induce	maintain	occasion
generally	infinite	maintenance	occasionally
goddess	influence	manual	occur
government	instance	manufacturer	occurred
governor	instant	many	occurrence
grammar	intellectual	marriage	occurring
grandeur	intelligence	Massachusetts	o'clock
grievous	intentionally	material	officers
guard	intercede	mathematics	omission
guess	invitation	mattress	omitted
guidance	irresistible	meant	opinion
	its	messenger	opportunity
harass	it's	miniature	optimistic
haul	itself	minutes	original
having		mischievous	outrageous
height	knew	Mississippi	overrun
hesitancy	knowledge	misspelled	
holy		momentous	paid
hoping	laboratory	month	pantomime
huge	ladies	murmur	parallel
humorous	laid	muscle	parliament
hundredths	later	mysterious	particularly
hurriedly	latter		partner
hygienic	lead	necessary	pastime
	led	Negroes	peacable
imaginary	liable	neither	perceive
imitative	library	nickel	perception
immediately	lightning	nineteenth	peremptory
immigration	likely	ninetieth	perform
imminent	literature	ninety	perhaps
impromptu	loneliness	ninth	permissible

perseverance	prohibition	science	stretch
per'sonal	promissory	scream	strictly
personnel'	prove	screech	succeeds
perspiration	purchase	seems	successful
persuade	pursue	seize	summarize
pertain	putting	sense	superintendent
pervade		sentence	supersede
physical	quantity	separate	sure
picnic	quiet	sergeant	surprise
picnicking	quite	several	syllable
planned	quizzes	shiftless	symmetrical
pleasant		shining	
politician	rapid	shone	temperament
politics	ready	shown	tendency
possession	really	shriek	than
possible	recede	siege	their
practically	receive	similar	there
prairie	recognize	since	therefore
precede	recommend	smooth	they're
preced'ence	reference	soliloquy	thorough
prec'edents	referred	sophomore	thousandths
preference	regard	speak	till
preferred	region	specimen	to
prejudice	religion	speech	together
preparation	religious	statement	too
primitive	repetition	stationary	track
principal	replies	stationery	tract
principle	representative	statue	tragedy
prisoner	restaurant	stature	transferred
privilege	rheumatism	statute	translate
probably	ridiculous	steal	treacherous
proceed		steel	treasurer
prodigy	sacrilegious	stopped	tries
profession	safety	stopping	trouble
professor	sandwich	stops	truly
proffered	schedule	stories	Tuesday

SPELLING LIST

79

two	vigilance	where	without
typical	village	wherever	woman
tyranny	villain	whether	women
		which	world
universally *	weak	whole	writing
until	wear	wholly	written
using	weather	who's	
usually	Wednesday	whose	your
	week	wintry	you're
vacancy	weird	wiry	
vengeance	welfare	within	



Manuscript
Style and
Study Habits



MANUSCRIPT USAGE AND CONSISTENCY

80. Make your manuscript accurate in form, and consistent.

a. Consistency

Be consistent as to form. Though different styles may be acceptable, stick to one throughout an entire manuscript.

SPELLING: Not "catalog" on page 1 and "catalogue" on page 2

CAPITALS: Not "the governor" and later "the Governor"

ABBREVIATIONS: Not "Chalmers Ave." and then "Tenth Street"

NUMBERS: Not "planted ten acres of wheat and 12 of oats"

PUNCTUATION: Not "Tom, Dick, and Harry" and then "bread, cakes and pies"

INDENTION: Not half an inch for the first paragraph, two for the second, and one for the third

ITALICS, QUOTATION MARKS: Not Mary Ellen Chase's *Thus England* and Adams's "Empire on the Seven Seas"

OUTLINES: For subdivisions of the same rank use the same capitalization, the same indention, the same grammatical form.

b. Paper, Ink, and Endorsement

Use the kind and size of paper the instructor prescribes. If he issues no instructions, use unruled sheets eight and a half inches wide by eleven inches long.

Always either type your themes or write them in black or blue-black ink. Never use pencil. Write on only one side of the sheet.

Unless otherwise instructed, fold the written paper vertically and place on the outside your name, the course and section numbers, your theme subject, and the date.

c. Title

Center a title on the page. Capitalize the first word and all important words. It is undesirable to place a period after a title, but a question mark or exclamation point should be used when one is appropriate. Do not underscore the title¹ or unnecessarily place it in quotation marks. Leave a blank line (in typescript an extra double space) under the title before beginning the body of the writing. Do not allow your first sentence to depend for its meaning on the title. Do not repeat the title on succeeding pages.

d. Spacing

Careful spacing is as necessary as punctuation. Place writing on a page as you would frame a picture, crowding it toward neither the top nor the bottom. Leave liberal margins. Indent approximately one inch at the beginning of each paragraph. Keep blank any portion of the last line of a paragraph which the material of that paragraph does not cover, but permit no long gaps at the end of other lines. Leave a space after a word and a double space after a sentence. In typewriting, use a single space after a comma or a semicolon, a double or triple space after an end mark, and double spacing between lines except in footnotes and in quoted passages. In handwritten pages, leave room between successive lines, and do not let the loops of letters run into the lines above

¹ In manuscript a horizontal line drawn under a letter or word is a sign for the printer to use italic type.

or below. Keep footnotes clearly separated from the text by a horizontal line or by a belt of white space.

e. Handwriting

Write a clear, legible hand. Connect all the letters of a word. Form *a, o, u, n, e, i* properly. Write out *and* horizontally. Avoid unnecessary flourishes in capitals, and curlicues at the end of words. Dot your *i* and *j* and cross your *t* and *x*, not with circles or long eccentric strokes but simply and accurately.

If you use a typewriter, keep the type clean and the ribbon fresh. Never strike one letter on top of another. Use a quality of paper that allows you to make clean erasures.

f. Alterations

To cancel a word draw a horizontal line through it (never use parentheses to indicate deletion). To insert a word place a caret \wedge below the line and insert the word over it above the line. To close a space place a link \frown across the top of the space. To separate words use a slanting bar $/$. To transpose letters or words hook the printer's sign \hookleftarrow around them, a loop to each. Make all erasures and corrections neatly. If more than three alterations are necessary on a page, rewrite the page.

g. Reference to Sources

To give credit for borrowed material place an asterisk * (or a superior number ¹ if more than one source is credited on the page) at the point in your paper where you use the material.

According to John Gunther¹ the Communists in China But Edgar Snow² thinks Other writers³ who have studied the question say

¹ John Gunther, *Inside Asia*, p. 243.

² Edgar Snow, *Red Star over China*, p. 325.

³ Bruce Bliven, "For a Declaration of War," *The New Republic*, Vol. 105, No. 8, p. 235; Pearl S. Buck, "Dragon Seed," *Asia*, Vol. XLI, No. 9, p. 463.

In a footnote give the name of the author, the title of the book you are referring to, and the page or pages where the material may be found. For a magazine article give in addition to the author and title the name of the magazine, volume and number (or month and year), and page.

At the end of your paper give a list of your sources, including author, title, publisher, and date of publication; or author, article, periodical, volume (or month and year).

NOTE.—If you use the phrasing of the source quote word for word, enclosing the passage in quotation marks, indicating any omissions, even of a single word, by dots . . . , and setting off in brackets [] any explanatory word that you may insert. If you borrow only the idea, restate it in your own words and do not use quotation marks.

CAPITAL LETTERS

81. Capitalize the first word of a sentence or a quoted sentence:

The captain barked out a command, "Guide right!"¹

¹ If only a fragment of a sentence is quoted, the capital should normally be omitted. RIGHT: They said they would "not take no for an answer."

Capitalize the first word and all important words in the title of a book or theme (all words except prepositions, conjunctions, articles):

Green's *A Short History of the English People*, Chapter 5, page 12. [Capitalize words like *Chapter*, *Part*, *Act*, and *Scene*, but not words like *page* or *line*]

the *National Geographic Magazine* [A magazine. Do not capitalize *the* or *magazine* unless it is a part of the title.]

the *New York Times* [A newspaper. Do not capitalize *the*.]

In poetry each line ordinarily begins with a capital.

In an outline each new entry begins with a capital.

Proper Names

a. Capitalize all proper names (individual identifying names):

Congress, Republican, Charles, Shorty, Mexico, Catholics, Masons, Europe, God, Christian, Christ, the Bible.

Capitalize names of

1. DEFINITE REGIONS: the South, the East, the Orient,
BUT NOT points of the compass: turn south, a south wind,
2. DAYS, MONTHS, ETC.: Tuesday, February, Christmas, Easter,
Fourth of July, June tenth,
BUT NOT names of the seasons: fall, spring, winter (unless personified—O wayward, fickle Spring!).
3. RACES AND LANGUAGES (and adjectives derived from them):
Indian, Japanese, Negro, Latin, English, Spanish,
BUT NOT school studies (except languages): history, art.
4. TITLES THAT PRECEDE A NAME: Uncle Nat, Major Lee, Mr. Bell, Dr. Gray, President Daniels, the Reverend Mr. Harris,
BUT NOT a title after a word like *my*, *a*, *the*: my aunt May, my father, a doctor, the lawyer.

Words Regularly Added to Place Names and Organizations

b. Capitalize general words only when they are regularly added to place names and organizations:

PLACE NAMES: Twenty-first Street, New York City, Cook County, Gem Lake, Missouri River, Red Mountain, Lake Superior, Mt. Everest, Gulf of Mexico,

BUT a river west of town, a mountain behind the lake.

ORGANIZATIONS: Jefferson School, the Unitarian Church, the Pennsylvania Railroad, the Bell Telephone Company, the University Club, Marietta College, the University of Wisconsin,

BUT our high school, a church, a prosperous telephone company, a railroad crossing, a service club, coeducational colleges.

MANUFACTURED STRUCTURES: the Exchange Building, Macy's Store, Tucker's Shop, Brooklyn Bridge, Apartment 10, the Circle Theatre,

BUT a new office building, a department store, a hat shop, an apartment house, a neighborhood theatre.

Trade Names

c. Capitalize only the specific part of trade names:

'Waterman's ink, Palmolive soap, Del Monte pineapple, Silver-town tires [There are many *Silvertown tires*, but there is only one *Brooklyn Bridge*].

Divided Usage

NOTE 1.—Since newspapers deal mainly with trade names like *Goodyear tires*, *Colgate's toothpaste* they often extend their trade-name practice to place names thus: *Tenth avenue*, *Ozark mountains*. (They never use a small letter when the general term comes before the proper name: *Lake Louise*, *Mt. Shasta*. They seldom have courage to use a small letter

for the name of a store or industry: Jordano Brothers' Grocery.)

Since book publishers deal with place names oftener than with trade names like *Manhattan shirts*, they usually print *Fifth Avenue, Rocky Mountains*. This "literary usage" is preferred usage at the present time.

I, O, and Abbreviations

NOTE 2.—Capitalize *I* and *O* and abbreviations of words used as part of a proper name: *Dr., Mr., Mt., St.*

Titles Used in Place of Names

NOTE 3.—Do not capitalize titles used in place of names except for officials of very high rank. Write *the mayor, the chief of police, the sophomore class*.

A school publication would be justified in printing *the Faculty, the College, the Dean, the Freshman Class* provided those terms had specific reference for local readers in general.

Within a business organization one would be justified in writing *the Home Office, the Board of Directors, the General Manager, the Chief, the Boss* provided these terms had a specific reference for local readers.

Father and *Mother* may be written with capitals or without. Capitals are preferable when the word falls alongside proper names (*Marian, Uncle Joe, and Father*).

Words Derived from Proper Names

NOTE 4.—A few words which were once capitalized because their derivation from a proper noun was clearly remembered are now written with a small letter because their meaning has become generalized: *italic type, pullman car, pasteurized milk*.

EXERCISE

Insert a capital wherever one is necessary. Be able to give a reason for each decision.

1. she lives on forty-eighth street at the corner of slauson avenue.
2. have you ever lived in the south in the winter?
3. our belgian gardener speaks very little english.
4. the bible is the source book for all christians.
5. we stopped at an inn in new mexico where indians were selling blankets.
6. his aunt jane works in the patent office in washington, d.c.
7. mr. james k. knowles, principal of central high school, will speak to freshman boys' at eight o'clock tonight.
8. her vacation last summer included a trip to the orient.
9. mother told him to bring a can of libby's pineapple, a pound of hills bros. coffee, a quart of pasteurized milk, and a package of knox's gelatin.
10. in one day last spring I saw brooklyn bridge, niagara falls, and the capitol building in albany.

ITALICS, ABBREVIATIONS,
NUMBERS

82. Use italics, abbreviations, and numbers systematically.

Italics

- a. Underscore (to indicate italics) words that for clearness need to be set off or emphasized.

1. The name of a book, of a periodical, and (usually) of a ship.

RIGHT: Surely everybody admires *Hamlet*. [Italics show that the writer means *Hamlet* the play, not Hamlet the man.]

RIGHT: In Miss Millay's volume *The Buck in the Snow* I like

best the title poem "The Buck in the Snow." [Quotation marks set off a subdivision from a larger work.]

RIGHT: I read Clarence Streit's "For Mutual Advantage" in the *Atlantic Monthly*.

RIGHT: The *Epirus*, loaded with Red Cross supplies, was sunk in mid-Atlantic.

2. WORDS OR LETTERS AS SUCH: Do not sound the first *t* in *chestnut*.
3. FOREIGN WORDS NOT YET ANGLICIZED: The Germans were demanding *Lebensraum*.
4. WORDS REQUIRING SPECIAL EMPHASIS: The *Greeks* laid our cultural foundations; the *Romans* did not.
It is better, however, to depend for emphasis on sentence structure: The Greeks, not the Romans, laid our cultural foundations.

Abbreviations

b. In ordinary writing avoid abbreviations. Spell out

1. *And, in the morning, this afternoon* [not *&, in the a.m., this p.m.*]
2. Titles except *Mr., Mrs., Messrs., Dr.*¹: *Professor, Captain* [not *Prof., Cap.*]
3. Names of months and days: *September, Tuesday* [not *Sept., Tues.*]
4. Names of states, countries: *Utah, England* [not *U., Eng.*]
5. Christian names, unless initials are used instead: *Charles* [not *Chas.*]
6. *Street, Avenue, Road, Railroad, Park, Fort, Mountain, Company, Brothers, Manufacturing, etc.*

NOTE.—In business correspondence, technical writing, tabulations, footnotes, and bibliographies use whatever abbrevi-

¹ These abbreviations may not be used apart from names: *My dear Dr. Foster* or *My dear Doctor* (not *My dear Dr.*).

ations are really needed. Guard against abbreviations that make the reader do unnecessary work.

Numbers

- C. Use figures for dates, for street numbers, for reference to pages, for numbers that cannot be expressed in a few words, and for complicated sums of money. Write out other numbers.**

RIGHT: June 16, 1943 [not 6/16/43]. 804 Chalmers Street. See Chapter 4, especially page 79.

RIGHT: The farm comprised 3,260 acres. In 1940 the population of Kansas was 1,801,028. He earned \$437 while attending school. The cost of the improvement was \$1,940.25.

RIGHT: The box weighs two hundred pounds. Xerxes had an army of three million men. I enclose seventy-five cents. He owed twelve hundred dollars. Grandfather Toland is eighty-seven years old. The train is due at a quarter past three.

In a long series of numbers use all figures or all words. Prefer figures if any of the numbers are complicated.

RIGHT: Three thousand men and four hundred mules.

RIGHT: 3,643 men and 421 mules.

EXERCISE

1. MacDuff seems to me one of the best characters in Macbeth.
2. Rough, dough, cough, through, and bough look as if they should rhyme.
3. He wrote for the Herald-Tribune and for the Atlantic Monthly.
4. The white oak, *quercus alba*, has a seven-lobed leaf.
5. In *Racing Days*, a chapter of *Life on the Mississippi*, Mark Twain discusses the record runs of the R. E. Lee and the Eclipse.

6. Last Apr. I took a R. R. trip.
7. I remain Yrs. respy, Wm. K. Barton.
8. In Salt Lake City, U., is a famous Mormon temple, and *etc.*
9. A no. of us contributed; we gave not less than a \$ apiece.
10. Saml F. B. Morse, Alex. Graham Bell, and Thos. A. Edison were noted inventors.
11. The price has been reduced from \$1.00 to \$0.67 a lb.
12. The package will go at the \$0.14 rate if you limit the valuation to \$10.00.
13. At 10 o'clock we shall give the signal for firing 3 guns.
14. We take 1 daily paper and 3 magazines.
15. Dykes sold the property for one thousand two hundred and thirty-one dollars and eighty-six cents.

SYLLABICATION

83. If a word must be broken at the end of a line, use a hyphen there (not at the beginning of the second line). Divide between syllables only: *depart-ment*, *dis-charge*, *ab-surd*, *univer-sity*, *pro-fessor* (not *depa-rtment*, *disc-harge*, *abs-urd*, *unive-rsity*, *prof-essor*). The parts must be pronounceable.

a. Monosyllabic Words, Short Syllables

Monosyllabic words are never divided: *which*, *through*, *dipped*, *speak* (not *wh-ich*, *thr-ough*, *dip-ped*, *spe-ak*; divided syllables are either unpronounceable or misleading).

A single letter should never be separated from the rest of the word: *achieve-ment*, *enor-mous*, *dyspep-sia* (not *achievement*, *e-normous*, *dyspepsi-a*). Two letters should seldom be set off, though printers sometimes make an exception in favor of prefixes like *un* or suffixes like *ly*.

b. Consonants at the Junction of Syllables

One consonant at the junction of two syllables goes with the second syllable: *recipro-cate*, *ordi-nance*, *intimate* (not *reciprocat-e*, *ordinanc-e*, *intimat-e*).

EXCEPTION.—The consonant goes with the first of the two syllables if that syllable is short and stressed: *dil'-atory*, *el'-egant*, *ac'-a-dem-ic*, *a-cad'-emy*, *ath-let'-ic*, *dis-sat'-isfy*.

Two consonants at the junction of syllables are usually divided: *en-ter-prise*, *com-mis-sary*, *in-car-nate* (not *enterpr-ise*, *comm-iss-ary*, *inc-arn-ate*).

EXCEPTION.—Two consonants like *ph*, *th*, *sh*, *ch* which have a single sound are treated like a single letter: *ca-the'-dral*, *fal'-li-ble* (not *cat-hed-ral*, *fal-lib-le*).

c. Prefixes, Suffixes, Compounds

A prefix or a suffix is the proper part to break off regardless of the rule for consonants between syllables: *ex-empt*, *dis-appoint*, *sing-ing*. But when a final consonant is doubled before a suffix the additional consonant goes with the suffix: *trip-ping*, *per-mit-ted*, *omis-sion*.

Compound words are divided between the parts: *old-fashioned*, *runner-up* (not *oldfash-ioned*, *run-nerup*).

NOTE.—The different dictionaries use different methods of indicating syllabication. Each explains its own method in the early pages of the volume. *Webster* indicates the end of a syllable by a centered period (·), or by a heavy accent ('), or by a light accent (ˈ). In hyphenated words the

hyphen marks the end of a syllable: *bib'li-og'ra-phy, half-wit'ted-ness.*

The *Standard* indicates the end of a syllable by a single hyphen, or by a single accent ('), or by a double accent ("). In hyphenated words a double hyphen (=) marks the end of a syllable: *bib"li-og'ra-phy, half"=wit'ted-ness.*

EXERCISE

The following words are all taken from the spelling list in § 79. Place a hyphen between each pair of syllables in each word of more than one syllable.

absurd	argument	candidate	definite
academy	arithmetic	can't	describe
accidentally	athletic	certain	disappear
accommodate	based	changing	dissatisfied
acquitted	becoming	choose	divide
aggravate	beginning	clothes	divine
allotted	believing	coarse	dormitories
altogether	benefited	coming	eighth
amateur	Britain	committee	embarrass
appearance	Britannica	compel	existence

LETTERS

84. Make your letters correct, attractive, clear.

a. The Heading, the Inside Address, and the Greeting

The heading of a letter should give the full address of the writer and the date of writing. The inside address should be the same as the outside address.¹ The greeting

¹ For omitting the inside address, or for placing it at the end of the letter, see Note 3.

(also called the salutation) should be separated by a blank space from the inside address. Do not abbreviate short words, or omit Street or Avenue.

OBJECTIONABLE: # 15 Hickory, Omaha

RIGHT: 15 Hickory Street
Omaha, Nebraska

OBJECTIONABLE: 4/12/42; 10-28-'43

RIGHT: April 12, 1942; October 28, 1943¹

When a street address is not necessary, the address and date may be placed in one line thus:

Prescott, Arizona, June 1, 1942

The usual practice is to give the street address and to make the heading a well-balanced block of three lines.

CORRECT HEADING, INSIDE ADDRESS, AND GREETING, INDENTED FORM

935 Lawrence Avenue
Portland, Oregon
July 6, 1943

Mr. Joseph N. Kellog
1411 Lake Street
Cleveland, Ohio

Dear Mr. Kellog:

INDENTED ADDRESS AND "CLOSED" PUNCTUATION

NOTE 1.—In the model just given the first six lines are left "open" at the ends (the open space takes the place of

¹ October 28, 1943, is slightly preferable to October 28th, 1943. Both October 28 and October 28th (when not followed by the year) are in good use.

punctuation). It is also correct to place commas after the first two lines, and a period after the third, thus:

	1105 South Street, Piedmont, Maryland, June 18, 1942.
Mr. John Reynolds, 320 Orchard Avenue, Utica, New York.	
Dear Mr. Reynolds:	

**CORRECT HEADING AND INSIDE
ADDRESS, BLOCK FORM**

	106 East Race Street Red Oak, Iowa May 7, 1943
Mr. Joseph N. Kellog 1411 Lake Street Cleveland, Ohio	
Dear Mr. Kellog:	

The inside address and the greeting begin at the left margin.

b. The Body

The body of a letter should be correct in form.

1. Begin the body of the letter on the line below the greeting. Indent that line as much as the first line in an ordinary paragraph, one half inch or one inch (except in the extreme block form, when you should begin all paragraphs at the left margin).
2. Do not omit pronouns, or write a "telegraphic style."

WRONG: Just received yours of the 21st, and in reply would say your order was filled and shipped on the next day.

RIGHT: In accordance with your letter of March 21 we promptly filled your order and sent the consignment by American Railway Express, charges collect, on March 22.

3. The idea that it is conceded to use *I* is a superstition. Undue repetition of *I* is of course awkward; but entire avoidance of it is silly.

4. Use simple language. Say *your letter*, not "your kind favor" or "yours duly received" or "yours of the 21st at hand."

5. Avoid "begging" expressions which you obviously do not mean, especially the hackneyed "beg to advise."

WRONG. Received yours of the 3rd instant, and beg to advise we are out of stock.

RIGHT: We received your order of March 3. We find that we have no dining-room chairs B 2-4-6 in stock.

WRONG: I beg to enclose a booklet.

RIGHT: I enclose a booklet.

FAULTY: Permit us to say that prices have been advanced.

RIGHT: The prices on our goods have been advanced.

6. Avoid the formula "please find enclosed." The reader will find what is enclosed; if you use *please*, let it refer to what the reader shall do with what is enclosed.

WRONG: Enclosed please find 10 cents, for which send me Bulletin 58.

RIGHT: I enclose ten cents, for which please send me Bulletin 58.

7. Avoid unnecessary commercial slang: "On the job," "A-1 service," "O.K.," "your ad," "popular-priced line," "this party," "as per schedule."

8. Get to the important idea quickly. In applying for a posi-

tion, do not beat around the bush, or say you "wish to apply" or "would apply." Begin *I make application for . . . , Kindly consider my application for . . . , or I apply . . .*

9. Group your ideas logically. Do not scatter information. A letter applying for a position might consist of three paragraphs: personal qualifications (age, health, education, etc.); experience (nature of positions, dates, etc.); references (names, business or profession, exact street address). Finish one group of ideas before passing to the next.
10. Do not monotonously close all letters with a sentence beginning with a participle: "Hoping to hear from you . . . , " "Asking your cooperation . . . , " "Awaiting your further favors . . . , " "Trusting this will be satisfactory . . . , " "Wishing you . . . , " "Thanking you" The independent form of a verb is more emphatic: "I hope to hear from you . . . , " "We await further orders . . . , " "We ask cooperation. . . ."

c. The Greeting, the Close, and the Signature

The greeting and the close should be consistent in tone: if one is formal the other should be formal, etc. Each should occupy a separate line and should begin with a capital.

The greeting should begin at the left margin and should be followed by a comma (especially in short notes) or a colon (especially in long or business letters).

The close should begin in mid-line and be followed by a comma.

OPEN PUNCTUATION

NOTE 2.—Punctuation may be omitted after greeting and close when the heading and inside address are similarly treated (*see a*). But many persons reason that since greeting and close belong somewhat intimately with the body of the letter, they should be followed by punctuation even when the heading and inside address are “open.”

Greetings used in business letters include the following:

Dear Mr. Smith:	Dear Sir:	Dear Madam:
Dear Mrs. Green:	Sir:	My dear Madam:
Dear Miss Alden:	Gentlemen:	Ladies:

Greetings used in personal letters include the following:

Dear Miss Brown:	Dear Jones,
Dear Professor Ward:	Dear Olive,
Dear Mrs. Vincent,	Dear Bob, ¹

Closing phrases used in business letters include the following:

Yours truly,	Very truly yours,
Yours very truly,	Yours respectfully,

In personal letters the following phrases are used:

Yours sincerely,	Sincerely yours,
Yours truly,	Cordially yours,

Preceding expressions like “I am,” “I remain,” “As ever” (if they are used at all) belong in the body of the letter.

¹ As a rule, the more familiar the letter, the shorter the greeting.

RIGHT: I thank you for your courtesy, and remain

Yours sincerely,
Robert Blair

RIGHT: I shall be grateful for any further information you can give me.

Yours truly,
Florence Mitchell

The signature should be written; it should be clear and simple.¹ A man never gives himself a title or degree (Mr., Dr., M.D., Ph.D.) either before or after his signature. It is unnecessary, though permissible, for an unmarried woman to put (Miss) in parenthesis before her signature. A married woman should add below her own name her married name in parenthesis (Mrs. Jonathan Deane).

WRONG: Yours sincerely,
Allen Jenkins, M.D.

RIGHT: Yours sincerely,
Allen Jenkins

RIGHT: Very truly yours,
Sylvia Brown
(Mrs. Norman E. Brown)

The signature is regularly open (not followed by punctuation).

d. The Outside Address

The outside address should follow one of the forms given here:

¹ A typed signature may, and often should, follow the written one to confirm and clarify it

R. E. Stearns
512 Chapel Hill Street
Durham, N. C.

Mr. Donald Kemp
3314 Salem Street
Baltimore
Maryland

Bentley Davis
906 Park Street
Ogden, Utah

Rogers, Mead, and Company
2401 Eighth Avenue
Los Angeles
California

A married woman is ordinarily addressed thus: Mrs. George H. Turner (rather than Mrs. Grace Turner). But a title belonging to the husband should not be transferred to the wife.

WRONG: Mrs. Dr. Jenkins, Mrs. Professor Ward
RIGHT: Mrs. Allen Jenkins, Mrs. Arthur N. Ward

If a title of respect is placed before a name (Professor, Dr., Honorable), it is not desirable to place another title after the name (Secretary, M.D., Ph.D., Principal, Esq.).

WRONG: Dr. A. Bruce Steele, M.D.
RIGHT: Dr. A. Bruce Steele, or A. Bruce Steele, M.D.

A minister is referred to as "The Reverend Mr. Beecher" or "Reverend Charles K. Beecher," not "Reverend Beecher."

e. Miscellaneous Directions, Models

Writing should be centered on the page, not crowded against the top, or against one side. Letter paper so folded that each sheet is a little book of four pages is best for personal correspondence. Both sides of such paper may be written on. The pages may be written on in any order which will be convenient to the reader. An order like that of the pages in a printed book (1, 2, 3) is best.

Business letters are usually written on only one side of sheets $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 11 inches in size. The sheet is folded once horizontally in the middle, and twice in the other direction, for insertion in the ordinary envelope.

MODEL BUSINESS LETTER

526 North Vermont Avenue
Los Angeles, California
May 14, 1942

Mr. Carl Griffith, Manager
The Acme Garage
6001 Sunset Boulevard
Los Angeles, California

Dear Sir:

I apply for a position as mechanic's assistant in your garage. I am nineteen years old, and in good physical condition. On June 6 I shall complete my first year's work in engineering at California Institute of Technology, and after that date I can begin work immediately.

I have had practical experience in garage work. For two years I have made a special study of auto mechanics, in and out of school. I worked last summer in Taylor and Brown's Wilshire Service Station. In addition, I have become familiar with tools in my workshop at home, so that I both know and like machinery.

For statements as to my character and ability I refer to Mr. Eugene M. Brown, of Taylor and Brown's Wilshire Service Station (Fairfax 2357)

Mr. George Knight, lawyer, 2145 Kingsley Road (Oxford 7612)

Mr. Louis Vieth, banker (Garfield 27785)

Mr. H. W. Holt, Principal of Franklin High School (Garfield 22825)

These men can be reached by the local telephone, and they have given me permission to use their names.

Respectfully yours,

Howard Rolfe

MODEL PERSONAL LETTER

1204 Highland Avenue

Albany, New York

April 26, 1942

Dear Cynthia:

At last I can write definitely that preparations are complete. I shall leave Albany day after tomorrow, Friday afternoon, at 5 o'clock, on the New York Central, train 21. I should reach Hampton at 8:25 in the evening. I shall have to return home Sunday night.

Have you heard that Morris is working his way through school at Syracuse? And that the Wellses have a new car? And of Marie's marriage? I have another bit of news that I am saving for a surprise. It will be pleasant to meet your mother again; it is good of her to invite me.

Cordially yours,

Rita

NOTE 3.—A personal letter always contains a greeting, but may omit the inside address or may place it after the signature in the lower left-hand corner. It may even begin informally with the greeting, leaving both heading and inside address to fall at the end.

f. Formal Notes (Invitations)

Formal notes and replies are written in the third person (avoiding *I, my, me, we, us, you, your*). They employ no abbreviations except *Mr., Mrs., Dr.* and no numerals except street numbers.

*Mr. and Mrs. Clarence King
request the company of
Mr. Charles Eliot
at dinner on Friday, the tenth of May,
at six o'clock
514 Poplar Street*

Replies to Formal Invitations

Acceptances follow the same form as the invitation, repeating the day and the hour so as to avoid misunderstanding. The verb used in the reply should be in the present tense.

WRONG: will be pleased to accept

RIGHT: is pleased to accept

WRONG: regrets that he will be unable to accept

RIGHT: regrets that he is unable to

*Mr. Charles Eliot accepts with pleasure
the kind invitation of Mr. and Mrs. King
to dinner on Friday, the tenth of May,
at six o'clock.*

EXERCISE

Write out in correct letter form, fully punctuated, each of the numbered passages below, just as the items would appear in a letter. In place of the body of the letter insert one horizontal row of dots. Use "closed punctuation" (*see a*) and indented form in the first five letters (be careful to indent uniformly). In the other five use any form you choose, provided it is uniform and consistent.

1. 102 Maple Street Council Bluffs Iowa June 1 1942
Mr. Everett Newton St. Paul Minnesota Dear Mr
Newton Sincerely yours Helen Jameson
2. Syracuse New York December 4 1943 David Sykes
and Co Indianapolis Indiana Gentlemen Yours
truly A G Milliken for Smith Brothers
3. 6 Dover Road Cincinnati Ohio February 20 1942
Southeby and Company Ltd 18 Old Bond Street Lon-
don W England Sirs Very truly yours James
Gustavson
4. 1001 Exchange Building Madison Wisconsin April 10
1942 Mr James W Lamb Civil Engineer Denver
Colorado Dear Mr Lamb Yours truly Norris Mont-
gomery
5. 66 North Avenue Cleveland Ohio February 1 1943
To the Secretary of the School Board District Number 4
Cumberland Kentucky Dear Sir Respectfully yours
(Miss) Jessie M Davis
6. Edgemont Court Des Moines Iowa April 10 1943
Mesdames McCann and Buell Bendix Building Sioux
City Iowa Ladies Very sincerely yours Phoebe M
Wilcox (Mrs C W Wilcox)
7. Morning News Building Richmond Virginia May 26
1941 Senator James K Webster State Capitol Building

- Hartford Connecticut Sir Respectfully yours P B
Ashworth Assemblyman
8. 1054 Kingsley Avenue Kansas City Missouri July 20
1943 Reverend Mr Charles A Curtis Flint Michigan
Dear Sir Yours very truly Henry M Lynch
9. 55 Springdale Road Pittsburgh Pennsylvania October
25 1943 Miss Celia Maddox Principal Reading School
for Girls Reading Pennsylvania Dear Miss Maddox
Very respectfully yours Alma K Harris (Mrs Philip
Simpson)
10. 1011 Gramercy Road Denver Colorado February 10
1944 Mr Simon W Broome Secretary of the Kiwanis Club
956 Myrtle Street Decatur Illinois Dear Mr Broome
Yours sincerely Peter E Jackson

PARAGRAPHS

Paragraph Length, Dialogue, etc.

- 5a. Indent paragraphs uniformly (in manuscript, about one inch). In dialogue, indicate each change of speaker by beginning a new paragraph. In all writing begin a new paragraph for each natural division of the thought.

DETERMINING PARAGRAPH LENGTH

The length of a paragraph is ordinarily from fifty to three hundred words, depending on the importance or complexity of the thought. In exposition, the paragraphs should be long enough to develop every idea thoroughly. Scrappy expository paragraphs do not give the reader a clear and complete idea; they suggest that the writer has not given sufficient thought to the subject.

NOTE.—Short paragraphs are permissible, and even desirable, in the following circumstances:

1. In a formal introduction to the main body of a discourse, or in the formal conclusion. (The paragraph may consist of a single sentence.)
2. In the body of a composition, when a brief logical transition between two longer paragraphs is necessary.
3. In newspapers, where brevity and emphasis are required. (But the student should not take the journalistic style as a model.)
4. In description or narration meant to be vivid, vigorous, or rapid.
5. In dialogue.

PARAGRAPHING DIALOGUE

RIGHT:

"Listen!" he said. "There was a noise outside. Didn't you hear it?"

"No," I whispered. It was dark in the room, except for a faint light at the window; and I felt my way cautiously to his side.

"What is it? Burglars?"

"I believe it is."

"I can't hear anything."

"Listen! There it is again."

"Pshaw!" I had to laugh aloud. "Thompson's cow has got into the garden again."

Note that a slight amount of descriptive matter may be included in a paragraph with the direct discourse, the only requirement being that a change of speaker shall be indicated by a new paragraph.¹

¹ In exceptional cases a long, rapid-fire dialogue or the remarks of many speakers all talking at once may be placed in one paragraph. Each speech is, of course, enclosed in its own quotation marks. Dashes may be used before successive quotations to indicate a change of speaker.

Omissions from a dialogue (as when only one side of a telephone conversation is reported), long pauses, and the unfinished part of interrupted statements, may be represented by a short row of dots. . . .

Paragraph Unity

- b. In exposition secure unity by building each paragraph about one central topic or thought. In narration or description build about one event, impression, or effect. Strike out elements that ramble from the point. Fill up gaps in the thought.

As a special means of securing unity, condense the central thought of your paragraph into a topic sentence. Use this topic sentence as your controlling idea, and let the remainder of the paragraph *develop* or *expand* the thought of your topic sentence. The method of building a paragraph around a topic is of special value in exposition. If your paragraphs tend to be loose or rambling, give yourself practice in announcing your main idea in a topic sentence and then developing your announced topic into a paragraph.¹

THE UNIFYING EFFECT OF A TOPIC SENTENCE

A topic sentence is a sentence that states in a clear and compact way the subject that is dealt with in a composi-

¹ An expository paragraph usually explains a **TERM** like *armistice*, *plastics*, *radio beam*, *pressure cookers* or a **PROPOSITION** like "A pressure cooker repays its cost in six months." Paragraphs that develop a **PROPOSITION** nearly always have a topic sentence, and those that develop a **TERM** may well have a topic sentence, but often do not.

tion or a paragraph. Placed at the beginning, it starts the reader in the right direction by answering the question *What is the purpose of this paragraph?* Placed at the end, it draws together the matter presented by answering the question *What has this paragraph said?* Used at both the beginning and the end it says *This is where we are going . . . We have arrived there.*

LACKING IN UNITY:

The mean-spirited fellow may rise to noble conceptions when the national safety is endangered. The quiet, unassertive chap may prove a daredevil on the field of battle. The boor who pushes past you through the door you have opened may give you his place in the last boat lowered from the sinking ship. The thief or the cheater may be the volunteer when only a transfusion of blood can save a child's life. [The items are, as they stand, unrelated; yet they are plainly meant to develop a single thought or purpose. Something is required to bind them together and to give them point. The missing element is a topic sentence, preferably at the beginning: "Emergencies bring out unsuspected qualities."]

Paragraph Coherence

- c. Secure coherence in the paragraph by a clear arrangement of sentences and by clear connection—clear use of reference words, repetition of key words, parallel structure, clear use of transitional expressions. (See § 37.)

COHERENCE BY CLEAR ORDER

(Marking progress by a straightforward sequence of time, of space, or of importance)

LACKING IN COHERENCE:

Esther was a beautiful girl who had been brought up by Mordecai, a nephew of her father. She had lost her father and her

mother. She was raised to the throne of the empire by Ahasuerus, from a lowly, quiet life in the home. She was a Jewess.

ORDERLY SEQUENCE OF SENTENCES:

Esther was a beautiful Jewish girl who had lost her father and mother. She was brought up by Mordecai, a nephew of her father, in a simple, quiet home. From this low estate she was suddenly raised by King Ahasuerus to a place beside him on the throne of the empire.

COHERENCE BY CLEAR CONNECTION

(Marking progress by relating the parts)

CLEAR USE OF REFERENCE WORDS:

Jefferson did not believe that the United States government had the Constitutional right to acquire territory. But an exigency arose which caused him to set his theory aside. Louisiana had long been in the possession of Spain. Now Spain had disposed of it to France, and thus the vast territory that bordered on ours had fallen into the hands of Napoleon, builder of empires. One possibility was to take no action regarding this menace to our future safety as a nation. The other possibility, springing from Napoleon's temporary willingness to sell, was to buy Louisiana outright. Jefferson supported the American commissioners abroad in preferring the latter course. His career affords many proofs of his practical statesmanship, but none more convincing than this far-seeing act. [Each of the underscored expressions refers to a preceding or a following element in the paragraph. The expressions bind the paragraph together and make the progress of the thought easy to follow.]

PARALLEL STRUCTURE (sentences tied together by repeating, in a large and not narrowly rhetorical way, the same pattern):

Summers were always thrilling to us children. Some years we would go to the beach. Other years we would go to the mountains. Once we even packed into the woods on foot, hiking

for nearly a month. Always we were out of doors—a delightful contrast to our winters cooped up in a small apartment.

CLEAR USE OF SIGNALS (transitional expressions):

Why is a diet of potatoes not satisfactory? It is not satisfactory because it lacks balance. Though the middle layer of a potato gives us mineral salts, the central part gives us starch and very little else. Now starch is something most of us get too much of as it is. In cereals, also, starch is the principal ingredient. Proteins build up the tissues of the body, whereas starch gives us heat and energy. In the potato we get this heat and energy, but very little of the tissue-building material. Therefore it is not a good diet to eat only potatoes. We must eat potatoes with meat or eggs, or we must cook potatoes with a milk sauce. Then we get the needed protein from the meat, the eggs, and the milk, as well as the starch from the potatoes.

NOTE.—A transitional sentence may be necessary to indicate the relationship of one paragraph to another, or to indicate to the reader what progress has been made and what new turn of thought is to be encountered. Ordinarily the right place for a transitional sentence is the beginning of a paragraph.

TRANSITIONAL SENTENCE POINTING FORWARD: Let us turn to the advantages of the hot-water system of heating . . .

TRANSITIONAL SENTENCES POINTING BACKWARD AND FORWARD: We have considered the advantages of the hot-air system of heating. Let us now turn to those of the hot-water system . . . [Or] Having considered the advantages of the hot-air system . . .

Methods of Developing a Paragraph

- d. Develop each paragraph into a well-rounded unit of thought. Employ any method or any combination of methods that fits your topic and your purpose. The most useful methods are (1) enumeration and (2) comparison.

1. ENUMERATION OF DETAILS (PARTS, KINDS, TYPES, QUALITIES, CHARACTERISTICS, CAUSES, USES, ETC.)

Begin with a general statement and build it up with details; or begin with details and draw them together at the end with a general statement of the main idea. Example:

HOW TO CLEAN A ROOM

Cleaning a room goes best if you take it in three steps: the preliminaries, the main work, and the finishing off. First, place the small chairs and tables in the hall, and move the bed and bureaus out from the wall. If the bed is covered with a dark spread, place a sheet over it to keep the dust off. Remove dresser sets. Take all the shoes out of the closet, so that the floor can be easily cleaned. Open the windows (unless the wind blows opposite to the direction in which you are sweeping!). Second, get down to the real work. Sweep the rug thoroughly and remove it to an adjoining room. Then sweep the floor. Brush the closet first, being careful not to let the dust fly upon the clothes. Decide upon a certain corner toward which to sweep the dirt, and sweep in the same general direction. After every inch has been cleaned, gather the dirt in a pan, deposit it carefully in a paper, and burn it. If you wish the floor to look bright, go over it with an oiled mop. Third, dust everything, using an oiled cloth if possible to prevent dust from flying from one object to another. Replace the furniture. Put the rug on the floor. Straighten up the dresser, the table, and all books and pictures.

2. COMPARISON OR CONTRAST

Place ideas or objects alongside each other, and enumerate the points of difference or similarity. Example:

CASH VERSUS CREDIT

Many men will tell you that a person should always pay cash for his purchases. But I have heard it contended that he does more wisely to buy on credit, especially if he has gone to live in a city where he is not yet well known. There are advantages in both methods. If a person pays cash, he buys less. Every time he makes a purchase he sees the actual money leaving his hands, and the sight has a psychological effect upon him; rather than part with the money he will dispense with the article. Thus at the end of the year he not only has a fuller purse, but has made frugality a habit. If a person buys on credit, though of course he buys more, he finds compensation for his monetary loss. His name comes to the attention of the proprietor of the store, who never waits on him personally and might never hear of him were his account not carried in the books. Thus if he buys at the right places, and makes prompt settlement at the end of the month, he forms valuable acquaintances, and soon becomes known as a man to be trusted.

3. DEFINITION (EXPLAINING A TERM)

Give a definition at or near the beginning, and elaborate it, or illustrate it, or explain any of its terms that might be misunderstood, in the remainder of the paragraph. Example:

CAR SEALS

Car seals are fastenings placed on doors, windows, or other parts of freight cars, so that employees of the railroad can determine whether or not a car has been tampered with in transit. One of the most common forms of seal consists of a piece of wire that is passed through a door bolt or other fastener in such a way that the bolt cannot be opened while the wire is in place. The ends of the wire are then fastened together by a piece of

lead that is pressed over them so that the wires cannot be removed without breaking them or the lead. In order that the seals may indicate the point where the cars are sealed, or the person who seals them, the press with which the lead is attached to the ends of the wire is made to imprint in the lead certain distinctive numbers, letters, or other identifying marks. Of course, the wires commonly used could easily be cut with ordinary pliers; the reliance of the railroad is mainly upon the law, which provides heavy penalties for unlawful breaking of seals.

4. ILLUSTRATION OR EXAMPLE (EXPLAINING A PROPOSITION)

Make clear the meaning of an abstract term or a general statement by showing how it applies to actual things or in specific instances. Example:

MOVIES AND SOCIAL PROBLEMS

"Do Films Take Sides?" This is the title of Chapter Three in Rose R. Terlin's *You and I and the Movies* in which the author says that motion pictures do take sides. Among her many illustrations is this comment upon three particular pictures: "In all three films based on strikes in industries there is explained no cause for a strike except personal animosities or someone's personal ambition. The employer is the victim of these weaknesses of his men, and therefore justified in hiring strike-breakers and the like. Never are there presented the issues with which most strikes are concerned: wages, hours, the right to organize." I have myself seen two other films which dealt with industrial strife, and my observation corresponds closely to that of Miss Terlin. I think I am justified in saying that motion pictures do not give an adequate account of social problems. To be exact, I will put my motion before the house in mathematical terms: motion pictures do not handle social problems half so deeply or honestly as literature does.

5. OBLVERSE STATEMENT, OR ELIMINATION

By rejecting, one after the other, successive alternatives, make clear what an idea or proposition is not; afterward state definitely what it is. Example:

WHAT IS LIBEL?

Just what does constitute a libel published in a newspaper is often hard to determine. It is not criticism of the government or of governmental officials, for the Constitution provides for freedom of speech and of the press. It is not denunciation of political policies, for such denunciation is the normal procedure in every political campaign. It is not the printing of news that is false or only partially true, for errors are made unavoidably every day. Libel is the malicious defamation of a person, made public by writing, and tending to provoke him to anger or to expose him to public contempt or ridicule.

6. REPETITION

Clarify a statement by repeating it in other words or from new angles of approach. Example:

BUBBLES

The fertility of Barbara's brain is amazing. She bubbles over with good ideas, tossing them off almost without a thought. As a matter of fact, she might not have so many ideas if she took time for sober consideration. She is generous with her ideas, too, glad to share them with all, knowing that tomorrow she will have many others just as good. She gives off ideas as a bottle of soda pop gives off bubbles, effervescing any time you shake her up.

7. COMBINATION OF METHODS

Use the foregoing methods in combination, at need.
Example:

NOT JUST ANY ILLUSTRATION

An illustration in advertising should not be "just another pretty picture." [*Obverse statement*] An illustration should complement and make clearer the idea the copy wishes to convey, and it should carry conviction. [*Enumeration*] For instance, the face of a pretty girl might attract attention, but it would be unrelated to an advertisement for acetylene lamps. [*Example*] An appeal of this sort may even defeat itself, for the picture is irrelevant to the commodity. [*Repetition*] Illustrations are of two sorts, those in which the picture is the main argument, and those in which it is not. [*Enumeration*] The first type is exemplified by the travel poster, where the picture is the main interest and the copy is secondary. [*Example*] The second type is exemplified by the book advertisement, where the picture shows perhaps only the cover while the copy stresses the important matter—the contents. [*Contrasted example*] In all advertising the illustrations should suggest dignity and refinement, so that the reader may desire the article that seems to produce that happy state. As a rule, all features of copy and picture should be combined with the aim of creating a pleasant atmosphere, and all should harmonize logically with the central item of interest. [*Repetition and summary*]

NOTE.—In most of the foregoing examples, as in most expository writing in general, a topic sentence is employed to insure clearness. The topic sentence occurs normally at or near the beginning of the paragraph; it may be repeated, wholly or in part, at the end (especially if the paragraph is one that stands alone as a little composition in itself). Most expository paragraphs that stand alone are the better for some sort of clincher at the end.

EXERCISE

1. Arrange in paragraphs and insert quotation marks.

Hello, people. Sorry I'm late, called Dot, bursting into the room. There isn't much food left, was Bill's comment as he helped himself to the last of the potatoes. Where've you been? To the Old People's Home. Saturday is old Mr. Parks' birthday, answered the girl, pulling up a chair beside her brother. He's such a dear. Well, said Bill, giving his plate a last unmannerly scrape, if you're so keen about him, why don't you make him a birthday cake? That would be grand! she exclaimed. We'll get red candles and trim it with crimson ramblers.

2. How many topics are discussed in the following selection? How many paragraphs should it make? Should the topic sentence stand at the beginning of each paragraph, or at the end, or both?

Theodore Roosevelt had a wide range of interests. He was really an authority in a variety of subjects, and accomplished in many fields. He was a sportsman, a naturalist, a scholar, an author, and a statesman. His interest in animal life, botany, and woodcraft is well known. The fact that he could absorb half a page of a book at a glance shows the kind of scholar he was. As a tribute to his statesmanship the people elected him president. No one denies that Roosevelt had a magnetic personality, and a natural gift for leadership. Men trusted him and followed him with enthusiasm. He associated with many different classes of people, and he adapted himself to all. In Europe he was on an equal footing with monarchs. In America he hobnobbed with the Rough Riders and became one of them. His strength of personality is the more remarkable if we consider that as a boy he had been a weakling, under necessity of taking exercises to increase his stamina. Although Roosevelt had many admirable qualities, he had others not at all commendable. He often used

power in a dictatorial way. He was not always consistent, and sometimes let himself be ruled by impulse or unworthy feeling. For example, he opposed the league to enforce peace, not so much because he disapproved of the idea as because he disliked President Wilson, who sponsored the idea. Two years earlier Roosevelt had supported an international organization which had a similar aim. Also, when circumstances persuaded President Wilson that it was no longer possible to keep the country out of war, Roosevelt, who had previously derided him for not going to war, censured him for going to war. Nevertheless, Roosevelt's good qualities far outweigh his inconsistencies and faults. I never try to excuse his faults; I even like him better for human frailties such as we all have.

OUTLINES

Two kinds of outlines are illustrated in this article:
(a) the Topic Outline, and (b) the Sentence Outline.

The Topic Outline

- 86a.** For a topic outline use noun-headings (or noun-equivalents, with modifiers if necessary) which indicate the important ideas in a composition, and their relation to each other. Conform to the following model:

THE LUMBER PROBLEM

THEME: The decline of our lumber supply requires us to take steps toward reforestation, conservation, and the use of substitutes for wood.

- I. The causes of the depletion of our forests
 - A. Great demand
 - B. Wasteful methods of forestry
- II. The remedy
 - A. Reforestation
 1. Planting by individuals

- 2. Planting by the states
- 3. Extension of the present National Forest Reserves
- B. The prevention of waste
- C. The use of substitutes for wood (concrete, steel, brick, stone, plastics, etc.)

The Sentence Outline

- b. For a sentence outline use complete sentences, punctuated as in ordinary discourse. Conform to the following model:**

THE LUMBER PROBLEM

- I. Our forests are being depleted by the great demand and by wasteful methods of forestry.
 - A. Wood is in great demand for building, for industrial expansion, for fuel and other minor uses.
 - B. Wasteful methods of forestry are employed.
- II. The remedies for the depletion are reforestation, the prevention of waste, and the use of substitutes for wood.
 - A. Reforestation may be carried on by individuals, by the states, and by the federal government.
 - B. Waste may be prevented by controlling fire and insects, and by abolishing wasteful methods (for example, by abolishing the use of the "skidder").
 - C. Concrete, steel, etc., may be used in place of wood.

Indentation, Numbering

- c. Indent and number all headings properly. Indent headings that are coordinate (that is, of equal value) an equal distance from the margin. One inch to the right is a good distance for successive subordinate headings. Use Roman numerals, capital letters, Arabic numerals, and small let-**

ters to indicate the comparative rank of ideas. When a heading runs over one line, use hanging indentation; that is, do not allow the second line to run back to the left-hand margin, but indent it. Make the numerals and letters (*I, A*, etc.) stand out prominently. Do not give the title of a theme a numeral or letter.

FAULTY INDENTION:

Sources of energy which may be utilized when the coal supply is exhausted are

- I. Rivers and streams, especially in mountain districts
- II. The tides
- III. The heat of the sun

CORRECT HANGING INDENTION:

Sources of energy which may be utilized when the coal supply is exhausted are

- I. Rivers and streams, especially in mountain districts
- II. The tides
- III. The heat of the sun

Parallelism

- d. Express in parallel form all ideas that are parallel in thought. The nature of the thought may call for a series of nouns, noun phrases, noun clauses, etc. Forms differing widely in grammatical rank should not be placed in a series, unless defect in language makes parallelism impossible. Corresponding items should be alike in their use of capitals, end marks, etc.

FAULTY BECAUSE LACKING IN PARALLELISM:

- Advantages of a garden
- I. Profitable

2. It affords good exercise
3. Gives pleasure

RIGHT [Using nouns]:
Advantages of a garden

1. Profit
2. Exercise
3. Pleasure

RIGHT [Using phrases]:
A garden is valuable

1. For profit
2. For exercise
3. For pleasure

RIGHT [Using verbs]:
A garden is valuable because it

1. Yields profit
2. Provides exercise
3. Gives pleasure

RIGHT [Using sentences]:
A garden is valuable for several reasons.

1. It yields profit.
2. It affords exercise.
3. It gives pleasure.

Coordination and Subordination

- c. Avoid faulty coordination** (giving two ideas equal rank, when one should be subordinated to the other) *and vice versa*, avoid faulty subordination.

HOW SEEDS SCATTER

- FAULTY: {
 I. By wind
 II. Some seeds provided with parachutes
 III. Others light, and easily blown about
 IV By water
 V. By animals

HOW SEEDS SCATTER

- RIGHT: {
 I. By wind
 A. Some seeds provided with parachutes
 B. Others light, and easily blown about
 II. By water
 III. By animals

NOTE.—Topics as they first present themselves to the mind are seldom phrased or arranged perfectly. They have to be reworded and regrouped in order that their relationships among themselves and their bearing on the subject as a whole may be recognized. Subordinate topics must be combined, *not necessarily under large topics which are already at hand*, but perhaps under large topics which the student's own thought must supply.

FAULTY PHRASING AND GROUPING:

ADVANTAGES OF THE FOUNTAIN PEN

- I. To refill it, wherever you happen to be, is easy.
- II. Anywhere you go you can take it along.
- III. The point rarely has to be changed.
- IV. Rust on the point does not spoil the writing.
- V. In carrying the pen you do not have to carry the ink separately.

The first, second, and fifth topics have an idea in common—namely, that the pen may be carried anywhere without losing its usefulness. The key-idea to this group of topics is portability. The third and fourth topics have an idea in common—namely, that the pen renders just as good service at one time as at another. The key-idea to this group is uniformity of service. The outline is now easily rearranged:

RIGHT:

ADVANTAGES OF THE FOUNTAIN PEN

- I. It is portable.
 - A. The pen may be carried anywhere, without difficulty.
 - B. Ink does not have to be carried separately.
 - C. The pen may be refilled anywhere, without difficulty.
- II. It gives uniformity of service.
 - A. The point rarely has to be changed.
 - B. The point is never rusty.

Excessive Subordination, the Unmated Subtopic

- f. Avoid detailed subordination.** Especially avoid a single subheading; it can be joined to the preceding line or omitted.

	A. The McClellan Orchard
	1. Situation
	(a) On a northern slope
TOO DETAILED: {	2. Nature of soil
	(a) Sandy
	3. Kind of fruit
	(a) Apple
	(b) Cherry
RIGHT: {	A. The McClellan Orchard
	1. Situation: a northern slope
	2. Nature of soil: sandy
	3. Kind of fruit: apple and cherry

EXERCISE

1. Place in order the headings of the following outline on "Tennis as an All-round Sport." Subordinate some of the headings to others. If necessary, change the wording, or introduce new headings.

A game that can be played anywhere
 A game that can be made either strenuous or easy
 A game that can be played by old or young
 A game (unlike football, golf, rowing, etc.) independent of special facilities not likely to be had in ordinary towns
 A game that can be played by men or women
 A game that can be played by the skilled or the unskilled
 One of the most healthful games
 A game that can be played by anybody

2. Give a title to the following outline. Place the sentences in order, subordinating some to others. Introduce headings or subheadings of your own, if you find that such are necessary.

A dictaphone is an instrument into which one dictates letters. The instrument later reproduces the words for an operator, who types them.

The dictator does not have to wait until a stenographer is ready. The operator may turn back a record several times if she fails to understand at first.

The records soon become worn and the sounds of the words indistinct; thus a combination of poor dictator and poor operator wastes the time of both.

The dictator who so chooses may compose his letters before or after office hours without requiring the stenographer to put in extra time.

In disputes as to what the dictator said, the record furnishes the means for an accurate settlement.

Many dictators are ignorant, careless, and inefficient, and their dictation is very trying to operators. In offices where large numbers do each a little dictating, some are sure to be slovenly.

Good operators are hard to procure.

The operator may do other work if the machine does not require her whole time.

HOW TO STUDY

87. Read with understanding. Take notes selectively. Be able to paraphrase or to summarize what you hear or read.

a. How to Read

Make use of the table of contents of books. Keep in mind the large goals of each chapter as you read; do not

become so immersed in details that you cannot see the forest for the trees.

Make a mental outline of the writer's main points. Then you will know the goal of each division, know when you have made progress toward it, and know when you have reached it.

In your own books you can underscore the big ideas so that you can see at a glance the main points of a paragraph and of a chapter. From borrowed books you can write down the main points as notes.

Try to grasp not only the *main ideas* but also the important *details*—not only the *what* of each passage, but also to *what extent* and *how*. Make your reading answer questions.

b. How to Take Notes

Write down in rough outline form the main points of an article or a talk, together with enough details to enable you to give the gist (roughly but accurately) without further reference to the original. Use your own words as much as possible. Do not write complete sentences; take only enough to hold the thought. Prefer ink to pencil.

Notes for study are best kept in a notebook, each new subject beginning a new page. Notes on material to be used in composition are best made on cards (3 by 5 inches or larger). Put each topic on a separate card, so that the material may be easily rearranged and reorganized. Note all details (author's name, book title, page reference, pub-

lisher, and date of publication) so clearly and completely that the material is available for use in an article or bibliography without your going back to the original. Avoid making yourself do the work twice over.

In taking notes on a lecture you should record the speaker's name and subject, headings, dates, and books mentioned. Follow the speaker's divisions; a well-organized talk may be readily outlined by an alert listener. Omit preliminaries and details; try to give the gist of what is said. Leave yourself space to go back and fill in if your lecturer backtracks, and to "point up" your notes by underlining and inserting clarifying headings. For a carelessly organized talk the best you can do is to take down everything that seems important and head it up afterward, crossing out, inserting, and otherwise assigning weight.

Copy word for word within quotation marks particularly stimulating remarks or illustrations. Give the quoted passage a label which will recall the whole instantly to your mind. Note below it your own comments.

Save yourself time and labor by such generous spacing and clear handwriting that your original notes are all you need. Copying notes is sheer waste.

c. How to Paraphrase

To paraphrase is to give in your own words the essential meaning of a passage. It is a way of making sure that you understand the ideas expressed and helps you to connect them with ideas already in your mind. It is useful

in adapting to your own purpose material from several sources. It is one way to honest borrowing.¹

In your writing you should ordinarily try to express in your natural language the ideas you take from other sources. The style of an encyclopedia, for example, is not your own natural style. You should *weave in* ideas you borrow, so that they go along naturally, in meaning and tone, with what you have to say.

SOURCE MATERIAL: The height of lunar mountains cannot be stated with the same definiteness that we can achieve in assigning heights to our terrestrial mountains, because there is no fixed sea level on the moon to which elevations can be referred. The only determination that can be made on the moon is that of the height above some neighboring hollow crater or plain.

PARAPHRASE: We are unable to state the height of the mountains on the moon as accurately as we can those on the earth because the moon has no fixed sea level from which to begin. Mountains on the moon can be measured only in terms of the number of feet they rise above some neighboring plain or crater.

1. First put down in simple language of your own what the passage seems to mean. Translate long abstractions or technical terms to the simplest equivalents you can find. If necessary, take more words than the original to convey an idea. Quite often an author will have compressed to one word an idea that put into other surroundings needs a sentence.
2. Make sure you have added nothing and left out nothing

¹ If you borrow an idea that is unmistakably the property of one man give him credit even though you are not using his very words. Say "The opinion of James K. Rhodes is that so-and-so"; or "Hugh McHugh reports that so-and-so."

vital. Be wary of jumping at conclusions; do not let one word lead you on a false scent.

3. Finish your paraphrase in the clearest English you can command. It is not necessary to find synonyms for every word in the original. Simply say it as you would naturally say it if the idea were your own.

d. How to Summarize

To summarize a passage give the main points only, omitting details and non-vital matter. The essential meaning of a paragraph may usually be condensed to a single sentence. The topic sentence (if there is one) of the paragraph will usually give you the subject of your summarizing sentence, and the latter part of the paragraph will usually give you the predicate. Sometimes the essential meaning must be pulled out of the paragraph, here and there, bit by bit.

EXAMPLE OF A PARAGRAPH REDUCED TO A SUMMARIZING SENTENCE

NEW STEELS FOR NEW USES

Time was, not so long ago, when steel was just steel. You bought one kind of steel for every purpose. In 1911 only 11 kinds of steel were used in making automobiles; today 83 kinds are so used. There is a particular advantage in each kind. Some alloys give greater strength for equal weight and bulk. Others will not corrode on exposure to acids or hot gases. Some alloys show no wear after long use. Others cut freely under tools and so can be more easily stamped into elaborate shapes. The operator knows just what use each batch of steel is intended for. "This batch is for brake drums on automobiles," said an operator to me. "Next is a batch for rifle barrels, quite different steel. After that a

couple of hundred tons of screw stock—steel that's easy to work in automatic machines. Special? Everything's special now."

SUMMARIZING SENTENCE

Whereas all steel used to be alike, today each batch is prepared for a specific purpose.

Summarizing puts our thinking to a test. It shows us how other men have organized good paragraphs; it trains us to build good paragraphs of our own. When we can compress the thought of several pages into a few sentences, using our own words, we have taken a long step in the direction of systematic thinking.

c. How to Write a Précis

To write a précis of a passage summarize each paragraph and unite the resulting sentences in an orderly and continuous whole. A précis is a cutdown substitute for the original passage. It should be intelligible to persons who have not seen the original.¹

1. Read the material several times. Grasp the central idea. Underscore the main points or make notes of them.
2. Express the central idea briefly in your own language, making every word count. Try to reduce the thought of each paragraph to a single sentence.
3. Tie these summarizing sentences together (using parallel structure, transition phrases, or whatever is necessary) until they give the *connected thought* of the original passage.

¹ The word *précis* is pronounced *pray-see*. By most persons the words *summarizing* and *précis writing* are used as synonyms. The word *summary* is used oftenest in treating a paragraph or a short passage; the word *précis* is used oftenest in treating a longer passage where the summarizing sentences must be closely woven together.

EXAMPLE OF AN EXTENDED PASSAGE AND PRÉCIS

OUR WASTEFUL COUNTY GOVERNMENTS

Just as another new hat is woman's greatest extravagance, so are county governments the greatest waste in our economy. In many states two thirds of all governmental expense goes for the maintenance of local units (county and city). Much of this expense is waste because of duplication or overlapping of functions.

County boundaries today are as antiquated as the horse-and-buggy traffic that men used when counties were first laid out. These boundaries were designed to meet pioneer conditions of distance and slow transportation. In an age when a taxpayer can cross the state in his car in less time than it took his grandfather to drive to the county seat, the old county lines are ridiculous. They are an absurd vestige of slower transportation, a jigsaw puzzle of tiny counties, each working independently, each paying its own staff, conducting its own elections, providing its own buildings, but not having enough work to keep its employees busy. The result is that often the expense of a small county government is the same as the expense of maintaining another county many times its size. In Mississippi, for example, the combined expenditure of four small counties is just four times as great as the expenditure of the single large county of Sunflower, whose area is the same as that of the small counties together.

In still another way counties are a waste. Many cities have grown larger than the counties to which they originally belonged. Many hold jurisdiction over the same area as their counties. Services and offices are almost exactly duplicated, until the idea of a pyramidal government from federal down through state, county, and city organizations becomes a farce.

Unequal population, small size, and the overlapping of city and county are not the only causes of waste. Even in the large units there is extravagance because the average county has no recognized head. No one person is responsible for the honest,

efficient conduct of county officials. As a result there is duplication on one hand and neglect on the other. It is often impossible for citizens to fix responsibility for either good work or bad. In most counties a large group of officials—district attorney, sheriff, constable, and grand jury—have law enforcing functions which so criss-cross that dodging responsibility ("passing the buck," it is familiarly called) is almost inevitable. The citizens become accustomed to seeing crime go unpunished and wonder what sort of value they are receiving for their lavish taxes.

SUMMARIZING SENTENCES

County governments are one of our greatest national extravagances.

Duplication exists among counties because the areas are small, with county seats closer together than is necessary under present facilities for transportation.

Cities and counties duplicate each other's activities because cities often grow to overspread counties in size and population.

Having no recognized head responsible for the whole unit, county officials often duplicate each other's activities.

In joining the summarizing sentences use parallel structure, transition phrases, or whatever is necessary to give the *connected thought* of the original passage. The final result should be a *continuous running summary*.

PREFACE

County governments are one of our greatest national extravagances because of wasteful duplication of effort. Counties duplicate each other's activities because they are small and because county seats are closer together than is necessary under present facilities for transportation. Counties often duplicate city administrative functions because cities have grown to rival counties in size and population. A county government often duplicates activi-

ties within its own departments because the county has no recognized head responsible for the whole unit.

EXERCISE IN PARAPHRASING

1. Great as is the commercial ruin of war, it is perhaps exceeded in importance by the moral evils which war entails.
2. What an incubus we males carry with us in the dull and solemn monotony of our clothes!
3. The world has been learning to discriminate more carefully between the degrees of crime.
4. Men want most to count among their fellows for what they are worth.
5. The expectation of war and the war itself brought about a diversion to other uses of resources which in normal times would have been devoted to the improvement of the situation of children.
6. The immensely large capital now required for the conduct of a daily newspaper in a great city has made the newspaper more of an institution, less of a personal organ.
7. The value of money as an element of happiness diminishes rapidly in proportion to its amount.
8. If ever we had to meet defeat at the hands of a foreign foe, or had to submit tamely to wrong or insult, every man among us worthy of the name of American would feel dishonored and debased.
9. Realization is growing in the United States that despite advances made, many children cannot be given adequate food and care because of family poverty, and many community services are available only in a limited number of communities.
10. The Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938, by establishing nationwide standards higher than those operative under most State child-labor laws, marked a very significant advance in the protection of children from industrial exploitation.

HOW TO FIND INFORMATION IN A LIBRARY

88. Learn how to make general use of a library. Learn also how to find information on a given topic.

THE BOOKS, PAMPHLETS, ETC., IN YOUR LIBRARY

The books, pamphlets, etc., in your library fall into two classes—general works and reference works.

In small public school libraries general works are kept in open shelves or stacks. You may browse through the books on a given subject simply by going to the appropriate section. Browsing after consulting the card catalogue (*see b*) is perhaps the most satisfactory way of selecting material. The card catalogue tells you what books the library owns on the subject; browsing tells you not only what is immediately available but how valuable a given book may be to you.

In large libraries general works are likely to be kept in closed stacks. To obtain the use of a general work you must, by consulting the card catalogue, make sure that the library has it. You must then fill out a call slip for it (*see c*).¹

The reference works are kept in the reference room. Most of them stand on open shelves; you may have access to the others through the help of an attendant. (For instructions in using them *see d*.)

¹ If a book is reserved for the use of a class you may consult it in the collateral room, but not (ordinarily) take it from the building.

THE PERIODICALS IN YOUR LIBRARY

The current periodicals in your library are sure to be kept where you can get at them without trouble, though you may not take them from the building.

Back files of periodicals are usually kept in closed stacks, and are catalogued differently in different libraries. When the need arises you should have an attendant explain the system employed in your library.

a. How to Pursue a Topic

Take four steps in looking up a subject.

1. From what you already know about the subject make mentally or on paper a tentative outline as best you can, to help you know what to look for. If you write it, leave space to insert subdivisions or to make changes. Your tentative outline might well be as simple as one of these:

Background	Possible Advan-	Early Period	First Step
Recent Develop-	tages	Middle Period	Second Step
ments	Possible Disad	Final Period	Third Step
Application	vantages		

On another sheet list as many key words as you can think of: names of subjects, places, or persons connected with your topic. For example, if your topic is "The Economic Situation in Japan and China" key words would be Japan, China, Asia, the Far East, agriculture, industry, foreign trade, working classes, etc.

Consult an encyclopedia for a concise general treatment, taking notes only on the parts that bear directly on your subject. Be alert to note more key words and suggestions

for further reading. At this point you may revise your working outline if the information you have gained suggests a better or fuller division. Do not, however, let an abundance of material on one point throw the subject out of proportion.

3. Consult books which are wholly or in part about your topic.¹ Build up a list from the titles suggested in the encyclopedia, from selected reading lists, and, by using your list of key words, from the card catalogue of the library. To find what you need in a specific book look through the table of contents and the index for your key words. Leaf through the book, looking at headings and sub-heads, at chapter beginnings, and at the topic sentences of paragraphs.
4. On recent happenings consult magazines. Find useful articles by reference to the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* or to the specialized indexes.

b. Consulting the Card Catalogue

To learn whether the library contains a given book, look in the alphabetically arranged card catalogue under

1. The name of the author or editor (the surname is printed first), or
2. The title of the book (an initial *a*, *an*, or *the* is disregarded).

Perhaps you do not know the names of authors or volumes dealing with a subject you wish to investigate. Try looking in the card catalogue under the subject itself and under the key words you have assembled.² There, if you

¹ Try to select books which give their subject an honest, workmanlike treatment; avoid the flashy and superficial.

² Some libraries do not have a subject catalogue; most do.

are fortunate, you will find authors and volumes listed. The last card under the subject may name related subject headings for you to consult. Often the analysis of contents on a card devoted to an individual volume will suggest still further headings.

c. Making Out a Call Slip

To take a volume from the library, find the card for it in the card catalogue and copy on the call slip

1. The call number (usually printed in the upper left corner),
2. The name of the author or editor,
3. The title of the book,
4. The volume number (if the book is one of a series).

The attendant at the loan desk will then procure the volume for you.

d. Consulting Reference Works

Some reference works, such as dictionaries and year-books, supply information direct. Some list sources of information.¹ Encyclopedias, in limited degree, do both. That is one reason why an encyclopedia is often the best place to begin your investigation of a subject.²

The other reference works are so numerous that you

¹ A book or other source thus listed may or may not be owned by the library, and may or may not be at once available. In any case you know that it exists somewhere. If your need for it is great or your study is meant to be exhaustive, you may have to obtain it from some other library.

² As a rule the main article on a subject is only a part of what the encyclopedia offers you. To find further material consult the index volume.

may have difficulty finding those helpful to your particular need. If so, ask an attendant for suggestions or consult Isadore G. Mudge's *Guide to Reference Books*. For ordinary purposes the following works suffice:

DICTIONARIES

Webster's New International Dictionary (Second Edition)
New Century Dictionary
New Standard Dictionary
Murray's New English Dictionary. Also called the *Oxford Dictionary*. (This dictionary is very thorough, illustrating each word with numerous quotations to show historical development.)

WORKS SUPPLEMENTARY TO DICTIONARIES

Crabb's English Synonyms
Fernald's English Synonyms and Antonyms
Roget's Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases
Bartlett's Familiar Quotations

ENCYCLOPEDIAS

Encyclopaedia Britannica (Fourteenth Edition)
New International Encyclopaedia
Encyclopedia Americana
Columbia Encyclopedia
Century Dictionary of Proper Names (Volume XI of the original
Century Dictionary and Cyclopaedia)
Dictionary of National Biography (British men and women)
Dictionary of American Biography

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA ON LIVING PERSONS

National Cyclopaedia of American Biography
Who's Who
Who's Who in America
Kunitz's Living Authors
Kunitz's Authors, Today and Yesterday

INDEXES TO PUBLISHED BOOKS

United States Catalog
Cumulative Book Index
A(merican) L(ibrary) A(ssociation) Booklist
A(merican) L(ibrary) A(ssociation) Catalog
Book Review Digest

INDEXES TO PERIODICALS

Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature
International Index to Periodicals
Annual Magazine Subject Index
New York Times Index
Agricultural Index
Art Index
Dramatic Index
Education Index
Engineering Index
Index to Legal Periodicals
Industrial Arts Index
Public Affairs Information Service

MISCELLANEOUS REFERENCE WORKS

World Almanac
Whitaker's Almanac
Swanton's Guide to United States Government Publications
U. S. Department of Agriculture Year Book
U. S. Department of Commerce Year Book
American Year Book
Statesman's Year Book
Political Handbook of the World
Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences
The [Debater's] Handbook Series
New Larned History for Ready Reference
Cambridge Ancient History
Cambridge Medieval History

—
Cambridge Modern History
Rand, McNally's Commercial Atlas
Nature Library
Gayley's Classic Myths in English Literature and Art
Gray's Mythology of All Races
Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities
Hastings' Dictionary of the Bible
Catholic Encyclopedia
New Jewish Encyclopedia
The New Schaff-Herzog Encyclopedia of Religious Knowledge
Reinach's Apollo an Illustrated Manual of the History of Art
Grove's Dictionary of Music and Musicians
Harvey's Oxford Companion to English Literature
Cambridge History of English Literature
Cambridge History of American Literature

EXERCISE ON USING A LIBRARY

1. From the card catalogue learn the title and the author of three books on travel by airplane.
2. From the index volume of an encyclopedia list the topics discussed under the heading "Radio." In how many volumes would you have to look in order to read all those discussions?
3. By consulting the *United States Catalog*, the *Book Review Digest*, and *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature* find the earliest publication, the latest publication, and three other publications of your favorite living author.
4. Find the names of two books, two plays, and two articles dealing with Abraham Lincoln.
5. List six authoritative books or articles on American history, naming the authors, giving the dates, and (for the articles) identifying the periodicals.

**89. REVIEW OF MANUSCRIPT HABITS
MANUSCRIPT FORM, ABBREVIATIONS,
NUMBERS, ETC.**

1. From Broadway at Union Square it is 3 blks. to 7th Ave.
2. On Feb. 1 the snow stood 2 ft. deep on the sts. of Chicago.
3. One a.m. in Dec. the thermometer stood at 10 below 0 for 3 hrs.
4. The Dr. told me I should weigh only 120 lbs.
5. At Xmas & New Year's we suddenly remember people we never thought of for years.
6. Agreement O.K.; please sign recpt. & return.
7. The Smith bros. Mfg. plant adjoins the Penna. R.R. station.
8. In the Reader's Digest I read a review of a book called This Is London.
9. Yrs. recd. & in reply would say have no cedar chests 3 ft. long but have very good one 2'-6" long x 20" wide.
10. For the enclosed \$0.10 please send to me at #1115 S. 2 St., Omaha, Nebr., your pamphlet on How to Feed a Dog.



Punctuation



PUNCTUATION

Punctuation is used in writing as gestures, pauses, and changes of voice are used in speaking—to add force or to reveal the precise relationship of thoughts.

In ordinary writing three fourths of your problems will concern the comma. The four principal uses of the comma can be learned by mastering four rules—§ 90a, b, c, d.

THE COMMA

Commas to Enclose Interrupters (Parenthetic Elements)

- 90a.** Use commas to set off an interrupter. An interrupter is a parenthetic element *thrown into* a sentence, usually to confirm or explain something. To *set off* means to *enclose*—to punctuate on both sides.

1. APPOSITIVES

The Misses Jane and Helen Murphy, *members of the Riding Club*, are spending a week-end at Clear Lake.

On Labor Day, which was September 1, we reached Lansing, *the capital of Michigan*, and on September 3, *the following Wednesday*, we were back in St. Paul again.

From Palm Springs, *a winter resort in California*, we took a plane to Burbank, *a suburb of Los Angeles*.

In the last example an appositive falls at the end of a sentence, where the period makes a final comma unnecessary.

In mid-sentence *two* commas are required to enclose an interrupter—one before and one after.

VARIANTS.—Dashes may be used to set off an appositive that is very emphatic or one that is complicated by internal commas:

Her favorite colors—green, gold, and brown—make the room cheerful.

NOTE 1.—Familiar name-tags like the following are not set off:

Peter the Great my sister Jane
my friend Robert the poet Gray

The poet Gray is almost a single name, like *Doctor Gray*; and *my sister Jane* is almost a single name, like *Miss Jane*.

Short quoted or italicized expressions like the following need not be set off:

the expression "that's fine" the word *ain't*

2. ITEMS CONFIRMING TIME OR PLACE

In Hollywood, *California*, we worked for a motion picture studio from November 20, 1944, until Christmas. After Monday, *February 15*, my address will be 105 Green Street, *Urbana, Illinois*.

3. CONVERSATIONAL EXTRAS, DIRECTIVE EXPRESSIONS

DIRECT AFTER DEC	{	Your last letter, <i>John</i> , is a prize. Mr. <i>Chairman</i> , I move that we adj I will, <i>sir</i> . Watch your step, <i>Mary</i> .
---------------------	---	--

INTER- JECTIONS	{ They were, <i>alas</i> , my only trousers. It cost, <i>oh</i> , two dollars and a half. <i>Pshaw</i> , let's turn back. <i>Well</i> , what's the use?
RESPONSIVE ADVERBS, ETC.	{ Yes, I will. <i>No, no</i> , please don't. I will, <i>certainly</i> . <i>But no</i> , the cupboard was bare. They plan to go, <i>do they?</i> [echo question]
SPEECH TAGS	{ "Just why," <i>Joe asked</i> , "are we waiting?" Jane lifted her nose. "What a boy," <i>she said</i> .
SIGNALS	{ <i>First</i> , you take . . . <i>Second</i> , you add . . . Your next point, <i>however</i> , is only half true.

That is (or the abbreviation *i.e.*) is regarded as a directive expression and is regularly followed by a comma. If it introduces an appositive, it is preceded by a dash:

His latest proposal—that is, that the street be widened—will be discussed at the next meeting.

If it introduces a main clause it is preceded by a semicolon:

He is a pagan; that is, he is neither Christian, Mohammedan, nor Jew.

If it introduces a smaller element it is preceded by a comma:

He is a pagan, that is, neither Christian, Mohammedan, nor Jew.

Namely (*viz.*) or *for example* (*e.g.*) when used as a directive expression is ordinarily followed by a comma. If it introduces an appositive it is preceded by a dash or a comma.

CORRECT: You have three duties to perform—namely, keep the files, answer the telephone, and type letters.

ALSO CORRECT: If we wish to save our business we may choose one

of two plans, namely a merger with the Westcott people or the expansion of our own territory.

Such as or *as* when used to introduce examples is followed by no mark. It is preceded by a comma if the examples are nonrestrictive.

CORRECT: She likes all "warm" colors, such as red, orange, yellow, and brown.

ONE OF A PAIR WORSE THAN NO MARK AT ALL

NOTE 2.—Enclosing commas are used in *pairs*. To set off *one end* of a parenthetic element and leave the other end open is a stupid blunder—worse than using no comma at all.

WRONG: She is, I imagine very little. [Use a comma after *imagine*.]

WRONG: I saw you, sir at the station. [After *sir*.]

Two commas make a bridge across a parenthetic element which interrupts for a moment the forward progress of the thought.

An interrupter is *always* set off by two marks:

I see, madam, what you mean. [-----,]

If the interrupter falls at the end of a sentence a stronger mark (usually the period) replaces one of the pair of commas:

Interrupter last } You are right. I see what you mean, madam.
, m-----,

Interrupter first } I see. Mrs. Brown, will you excuse me?
. M-----,

EXERCISE

Which sentences require commas? Where?

1. My roommate Celia Holt will speak over radio station XYZ on Sunday October 20.
2. After Saturday May 18 this market will remain open until seven o'clock.
3. Phoebe Hilton daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Charles Hilton will be hostess at a bridge luncheon on Wednesday November 15.
4. Our Boston terrier Blitz likes to chase squirrels and birds.
5. The *Pandora* my brother's fishing schooner has been tied up at the dock in Gloucester Massachusetts for two weeks.
6. In Gloucester Massachusetts my brother Max tied up his fishing schooner the *Pandora*.
7. They were married on St. Valentine's day 1943 in a church in Charleston South Carolina.
8. Our local newspaper the *Gazette* carries very little news from foreign countries.
9. Their oldest son Philip is studying law at Harvard University.
10. At Tonopah a desert town in Nevada we went through an old silver mine.
11. The yucca the state flower of New Mexico has large white bell-shaped blossoms.
12. They will I think stop here on their way to school.
13. The river, they say, overflows its banks in the June run-off.
14. Come along my boy to the police court.
15. "Drive on" she said "to the next stop sign."
16. "Harry you certainly have a way of making people like you" said Mrs. Bell.
17. His fractured wrist will however take some time to heal.
18. Two of our neighbors the Pierces and the Browns have just returned from Pawtucket Rhode Island.
19. At Gainesville a town halfway between Oklahoma City and

- Fort Worth we changed cars for Wichita Falls Texas.
20. From Atlanta the capital of Georgia we drove in one day to Frankfort Kentucky.

Commas to Enclose Non-restrictive Modifiers

b. Use commas to set off non-restrictive modifiers. Do not set off restrictive modifiers.

A non-restrictive modifier is detachable; if it is removed the rest of the sentence still means what the writer intended. A restrictive modifier is *not* detachable; if it is removed the rest of the sentence does not mean what the writer intended. A restrictive modifier *identifies* or *limits* the word to which it refers; it points out *that particular* one, kind, sort, or group that is meant.

1. Relative Clauses (Adjective Clauses)

RESTRICTIVE: First prize goes to the pupil whose chart is most accurate.

NON-RESTRICTIVE: Isabel, whose chart is most accurate, wins first prize.

NON-RESTRICTIVE: Thomas Carlyle, who wrote forty volumes, was of peasant origin. [The name *Thomas Carlyle* tells us what man is being talked about. There is no need to identify him further. The *who* clause adds "extra" information about him. This information is not essential to the main thought, that Thomas Carlyle was of peasant origin. If the clause were struck out the main thought would still mean what it was intended to mean.]

RESTRICTIVE: Students who are lazy do not deserve to pass. [The *who* clause points out what particular students do not deserve passing grades. If the clause were set off by commas, the sen-

tence would mean that all students are lazy and that none of them deserve to pass.]

RESTRICTIVE: Where is the house that Jack built?

NON-RESTRICTIVE: I went to Jack's house, which is across the street.

RESTRICTIVE: The building to which this sign was attached was a slate-roofed tavern in Cornwall.

NON-RESTRICTIVE: They waited at the cove, to which the strange ship cautiously drew near.

NOTE.—Sometimes the wording of a sentence permits a clause to be either restrictive or non-restrictive. In such instances the writer should decide which of the two possible meanings he wishes to convey.

RIGHT: The man who had a cold last week is sneezing again today. [The *who* clause is restrictive. It identifies the man.]

ALSO RIGHT: The man, who had a cold last week, is sneezing again today. [The *who* clause is non-restrictive. The reader is supposed to know already who the man is.]

2. Participial Phrases

NON-RESTRICTIVE: *Opening the throttle wide*, the pilot lifted the plane over the willows and across the stream. [A participial phrase at the beginning of a sentence is practically always set off.]

RESTRICTIVE: Books *dealing with aviation* are in great demand.

NON-RESTRICTIVE: Emily dismounted in haste, *trembling all over*.

RESTRICTIVE: A man *trembling all over* is in no condition to drive a car.

NON-RESTRICTIVE: Our country, [which is] *made up of democratic people*, must be lacking in centralized power.

RESTRICTIVE: A country [which is] *made up of democratic people* must be lacking in centralized power. [Note that a phrase beginning with the past participle *made* is much like a subordinate clause that begins *which is made*.]

3. Adverb Clauses

NON-RESTRICTIVE *while* CLAUSE: You have every luxury, while I slave to earn a bare living. [*While* in the sense of *but* is always non-restrictive.]

RESTRICTIVE *while* CLAUSE: You can use the car while I am doing shop work.

NON-RESTRICTIVE *after* OR *when* CLAUSE: They reached the summit at seven o'clock, after [or *when*] the sun had been up for an hour.

RESTRICTIVE *after* CLAUSE: In his ignorance of parliamentary law Crabb tried to introduce a motion after the meeting was declared adjourned.

NON-RESTRICTIVE *though* CLAUSE: The council ordered the boulevard paved, though there were no funds in the treasury. [*Though* and *although* clauses are always non-restrictive.]

NON-RESTRICTIVE *since* CLAUSE: He may be ill, since we have not had a letter in months.

RESTRICTIVE *since* CLAUSE: The fields have looked greener since the rain fell.

NON-RESTRICTIVE *if* CLAUSE: I'll take lemon pie, if you please. [The *if* clause is added loosely, from politeness.]

RESTRICTIVE *if* CLAUSE: I shall be angry if you tell that story.

NON-RESTRICTIVE *as* CLAUSE: The piston broke, as you said it would.

RESTRICTIVE *as* CLAUSE: Janet watched eagerly as the train drew into the station.

NON-RESTRICTIVE *because* CLAUSE: The building should be painted, because unprotected wood admits moisture. [The *because* clause is thrown in as an explanation. It is not strictly necessary to the main thought.]

RESTRICTIVE *because* CLAUSE: I do not paint the house because paint will improve its looks. [Probably the paint does improve the looks. But it is not for this particular reason that I do the painting.]

THE COMMA

90

NON-RESTRICTIVE *so that* CLAUSE OF RESULT: The roof caved in, *so that* the tunneling was interrupted. [*So that* clauses of result are always non-restrictive.]

RESTRICTIVE *so that* CLAUSE OF PURPOSE: He wore colored glasses *so that* the sun would not blind him.

In all the preceding examples the adverb clause follows the main clause. An adverb clause which precedes the main clause is punctuated by the same rule; that is, a non-restrictive clause is set off, a restrictive clause is not. For example, most of the sentences above may be inverted so that the adverb clause comes first, thus:

While I am doing shop work you can use the car.

Though there were no funds, the council ordered . . .

Since the rain fell the fields have looked greener.

EXERCISE

Which sentences require commas? Why?

1. My brother Harry who likes to ride and to fish is seldom on time for meals.
2. Any husband who is late for meals should be severely punished.
3. My poor nose which stopped his fist has never been the same.
4. Any cowboy that tries to stop an angry bull is looking for trouble.
5. Old Jerry Johnson who gambles away his wages does not deserve to have a family.
6. Any man who gambles away his wages does not deserve to have a family.
7. At last Grant defeated Lee's army which was worn out and desperate.
8. Any army which goes through what Lee's army went through may be forgiven for surrendering.

9. Uncle's long beard which stuck out in the breeze was the subject of many jokes.
10. A beard that sticks out like a crow's nest may be expected to be the subject of jokes.
11. Our camp stove which was made of sheet iron always smoked when the wind blew.
12. That last house yonder which looks deserted is the home of a hermit.
13. Can you remember the house where you were born?
14. We were in Joe's law office which is upstairs over the post-office.
15. I don't care for an apartment which is upstairs over a noisy shop or store.

The Comma to Separate a Broken Series

- C. Use commas between items in a series ¹ unless and or or is used throughout.**
- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| a dark, mysterious forest | a dark and dismal swamp |
| we run, shout, and dance | run and shout and dance |
| John, Joe, or Jerry | John or Joe or Jerry |
| green, gold, black, or orange | green or gold or black or orange |

EXERCISE

Should the following series be punctuated? Answer *Yes* or *No*.

TWO ITEMS (USE ONE COMMA OR NONE)

1. a cold and rockbound coast
2. a stormy rockbound coast

¹ A series is a succession of elements of the same grammatical construction—two or more words harnessed together like a team, doing the same work in a sentence. They may be linked by a connective (*and*, *or*, *but*) or not linked. When they are not linked (when the smooth forward movement of thought is broken) we use commas.

THE COMMA

91

3. a quiet musical voice
4. new or rebuilt typewriters
5. a healthful well-balanced diet

THREE ITEMS (USE TWO COMMAS OR NONE)

6. the Misses Haley and Robinson and Jenkins
7. from Maine New Hampshire Vermont
8. a sleek powerful smooth-running automobile
9. she will clean and press and mend your suit
10. a damp cold foggy morning

FOUR ITEMS (USE THREE COMMAS OR NONE)

11. blue white green yellow
12. bread and butter and sugar and flour
13. horses and cattle—brown ones black ones thin ones fat ones
14. roses sweet peas violets jonquils—all her favorite flowers
15. birds and flowers and green meadows and cooling streams

1. BROKEN SERIES OF ADJECTIVES

Adjoining adjectives are separated by commas only when they describe the same noun in exactly the same manner.

a tall, swarthy stranger a tall and swarthy stranger
a hot, sultry evening a hot and sultry evening
a cold, cindery waiting room [No comma follows *cindery* because *waiting room* has almost the force of a single noun like *storeroom*.]

an ingenious, swift-moving short story [No comma is required before *short*, because *short story* is a special grouping having almost the force of a compound noun like *shortstop*, *shortcake*.]

a quarrelsome, discontented old fellow [Here we wish to

show that *discontented* and *quarrelsome* describe *old fellow* in exactly the same way. *Old fellow* is a special grouping.]
 white flannel trousers [*White flannel* is a special grouping. We do not mean that *flannel* and *white* describe trousers in exactly the same way.]

Explain why the following are correctly punctuated.

sparkling, fun-loving eyes	dark blue eyes
noisy, smelly trucks	the new lumber wagon
a smug, self-satisfied grin	a queer old fellow
fragrant, fresh-baked bread	wild blackberry jam
sun-splashed, white-painted walls	an old stone wall

2. BROKEN SERIES OF NOUNS HAVING THE FORM A, B, AND C

hoes, picks, and shovels } This first form is preferred.
 hoes, picks and shovels } This second form is also correct.

In the following examples the preferred form (A, B, and C) is somewhat more clear than the second form (A, B and C):

CONFUSING: For breakfast we had oatmeal, bacon and honey.

[Omission of the comma before *bacon* suggests a mixture.]¹

CONFUSING: In our state the principal railroads are the New York Central, Pennsylvania and Baltimore and Ohio. [The reader might surmise that the words *Pennsylvania and Baltimore and Ohio* represent a single line or even three different lines.]

RIGHT: In our state the principal railroads are the New York Central, Pennsylvania, and Baltimore and Ohio.

¹ Unless the writer intends that a combination like *ice cream and cake* shall be taken as one item: McDuff ordered ham and eggs, bread and milk, and ice cream and cake.

**The Comma between Main Clauses
Joined by a Conjunction**

- d. Main clauses joined by a conjunction (but, or, and) may be separated by a comma. If a conjunction is lacking use a semicolon.**

The passengers got off the train, but Jack was not among them.
We must hang together, or we may all hang separately.
Alex and his brother rode the horse, and the colt trotted along beside them.

CAUTION: *But*, *or*, and *and* do not always link clauses; they may join words or phrases:
silver and gold . . . run and jump . . .
Mother or Jane will serve coffee or chocolate.

VARIANTS:

1. Short main clauses may omit the comma: We ate and we drank.
2. A semicolon may be used if one clause already has a comma near the intersection: She is quiet, certainly; but it is the quietness of the cat that watches the mouse.
3. A semicolon may be used to balance one main clause against two others: Miss Carter types well, and she takes shorthand rapidly; but she spells too badly to be trusted with my letters.

EXERCISE

Which sentences call for a comma? Where?

1. I ordered vegetable soup and the waiter brought me clam chowder.
2. Stephen and Jerry saved their money but Philip spent his for a second-hand motorcycle.

3. They were tired and hungry but they did not rest until they had crossed the border.
4. Frank or Marian or Ellen will go to the concert with you.
5. We will repair and clean and oil your watch for three dollars or we will sell you a new one like it for five dollars.
6. This car is the best but it costs a small fortune.
7. Dogs and cats are forbidden in most apartment houses.
8. We tugged and pulled but the stubborn donkey would not move.
9. The car drew up to the curb and a man in uniform jumped out.
10. The officer ordered them to stop but the car sped on.

Misleading Combination of Words

- c. Use a comma to separate parts of a sentence which might erroneously be read together. Better still, recast the sentence. Makeshift uses of the comma to brace weak sentences are not to be encouraged.

CONFUSING: Long after her marriage was announced in the newspapers. [*Insert a comma after after.*]

MADE CLEAR BY PUNCTUATION: Long after, her marriage was announced in the newspapers.

MADE CLEAR BY REVISING: Long afterward her marriage was announced in the newspapers.

ALSO CLEAR: Her marriage was announced long afterward.

CONFUSION CAUSED BY A CARELESS ADVERBIAL CLAUSE: If we could induce him to eat the gopher might make an unusual pet. [*Insert a comma to prevent a running together of the words to eat the gopher. Better still, recast the sentence.*]

MADE CLEAR BY PUNCTUATION: If we could induce him to eat, the gopher might make an unusual pet.

MADE CLEAR BY REVISING: The gopher might make an unusual pet if we could only induce him to eat.

THE COMMA

90

NOTE.—A part of a sentence that is out of its normal position is often set off by commas as an aid to clearness.

NORMAL ADJECTIVE: The completely happy child spoke not a word.

APPOSED ADJECTIVE: The child, completely happy, spoke not a word.

NORMAL CLAUSE MODIFIER: When I had finished it my painting looked worse than before.

ALSO IN NORMAL ORDER: My painting looked worse when I had finished it.

MODIFIER OUT OF NORMAL ORDER: My painting, when I had finished it, looked worse than before.

CONFUSING: For a dime you can buy two pieces of pie or cake and ice cream. [Insert a comma after *pie*.]

CLEAR: For a dime you can buy two pieces of pie. For the same amount you can buy ice cream and cake.

CONFUSING: In San Francisco we saw the great bridges and people rushing everywhere. [The phrase *rushing everywhere* is intended to modify the last noun *people*; a comma after *bridges* may help to prevent plural modifying.]

RECAST: In San Francisco we saw the great bridges, and saw crowds of people rushing everywhere.

VERY CONFUSING EVEN IF COMMAS ARE INSERTED: The hooked rugs are made by the patients of old clothes or discarded blankets costing from two to ten dollars each.

RECAST: These hooked rugs, costing from two to ten dollars each, are made by the patients from old clothes and discarded blankets.

In any important piece of writing try to make your sentences so clear that they could not be misunderstood even if the punctuation were removed.

EXERCISE

Which sentences would be improved by a comma?
Where?

1. Upon the poor, millionaires, sometimes look with wondering contempt, sometimes with a vague pity.
2. In a letter to William Henry admitted that he was not succeeding as he had hoped.
3. Although Grandfather cannot hear visitors never suspect the fact for he is a clever lip-reader.
4. When I finally saw nobody could have been more astonished than I was.
5. Near the front seats were arranged around small tables.

EXERCISE ON THE FOUR PRINCIPAL
USES OF THE COMMA

Insert commas where they are needed.

1. Pack mules horses and dromedaries were used to carry supplies to the regiment.
2. We reached Portland Oregon and changed trains for Boise Idaho.
3. I might enjoy oatmeal if I were a Scotchman but I am not a Scotchman.
4. In the dingy musty-smelling basement we liked to play when the weather was hot.
5. Think madam what a bargain it is.
6. Mr. and Mrs. Anthony Prescott residents of Ohio are at the Clark Hotel with their niece Miss Sue Whitfield.
7. Her birthday you know is June 22.
8. Aunt May's high-pitched wheezy voice is sometimes irritating.
9. For lunch we had vegetable soup fruit salad cinnamon toast and milk.

THE APOSTROPHE



10. From December 20 1942 until March 1943 we were in Havana Cuba.
11. Leo Fitzpatrick a popular young member of the Ski Club will take part in the winter sports at Sun Valley Idaho on December 19.
12. The anvil rings and sparks fly up to the smoky ceiling.
13. Mr. Reynolds who is our treasurer makes us write vouchers in duplicate.
14. Any man who saves money is pretty sure to succeed.
15. Mr. Wilkins is generous but Mr. Hayes can pinch three cents out of every dime.
16. Pshaw let's go back home and wait until it stops raining.
17. His latest novel the one describing the pioneers is full of rich humor.
18. They are returning Friday aren't they?
19. It is I believe too late in the season to buy a straw hat.
20. The suit that you just tried on is expensive but it is far more practical than this one of mine that wrinkles if you look hard at it.

THE APOSTROPHE

Contractions

- 91a. Use an apostrophe in a contraction at the exact point where a part of a word is omitted.

he doesn't, we don't, she'll, we'd, they're, I'd, let's, shouldn't,
it's [= it is]

Isn't yours the class of '45?

In friendly letters and other familiar writing use contractions when a colloquial tone is appropriate. Above all, make your use of contractions consistent; for example, do not shift for no reason from *he would* to *he'd*.

Possessives

b. Personal pronouns form the possessive without an apostrophe.

ours, yours, theirs, whose, his, hers, its

The cat washes its face. Whose is it? Yours? Theirs?

[*It's* is used only for the contraction meaning *it is*: It's an Angora cat.]

Nouns not ending in s add 's (men + 's = men's suits)

Nouns ending in s add ' (boys + ' = boys' suits)

HOW TO APPLY THE RULE FOR NOUNS

1. Find the base word: { = whatever does the possessing. To find the base, turn the possessive into an *of* phrase: *boys' hats* = hats *of boys*. *Boys* is the base word.
2. Add an apostrophe: boys' ladies'
3. If the base ends in *s* { ladies' hats
add nothing more; { two boys' suits
if not, add *s*: { men's or children's

NOUNS NAMING INANIMATE OBJECTS

Except in certain idioms, nouns naming inanimate objects show possession by *of* (see § 50a).

PROPER NAMES ENDING IN S

NOTE 1.—The rule gives us *Keats'* poems, *Dickens'* novels. These forms are correct. But many persons prefer to add an extra *s* to names of one syllable, and to all other names whenever an extra sound is used in pronouncing the word

(Keats's, Dickens's, Jones's, Thomas's). Never split a name with an apostrophe.

VERY BAD: Dicken's novels, Jone's store [There is probably no such person as *Dicken* or *Jone*], ladie's hats.

RIGHT: Dickens' [or Dickens's] novels, Jones' [or Jones's] store, ladies' hats. the Harrises' car.

If you have a possessive plural to write, follow the rule. Find the base word that would be used after *of*: the house of the *Joneses*, the car of the *Harrises*. Add an apostrophe: We rode in the Harrises' car to the Joneses' house.

JOINT POSSESSION

NOTE 2.—To show joint possession, use the apostrophe with only the last name in the series; to show separate possession, with each name in the series.

JOINT POSSESSION: Bell and Townsend's shop has an annual sale.

SEPARATE POSSESSION: Jane's, Helen's, and Phyllis's escorts were late.

A POSSESSIVE WITH A GERUND

NOTE 3.—A noun or pronoun introducing a gerund should regularly be in the possessive case (*see* § 50a).

I am afraid of *Harold's* failing. [LESS GOOD: *Harold*.]

I hate the idea of *your* going. [Not *you* going.]

PLURALS OF LETTERS OR FIGURES

NOTE 4.—Add *'s* to form the plural of letters of the alphabet, and usually of numbers and of words spoken of as words. But do not form the regular plural of a word by adding *'s*.

RIGHT: His *B's* and *8's* (or *8s*) look much alike.

RIGHT: You use too many *and's* (or *ands*) and *so's* (or *sos*).

EXERCISE

Insert apostrophes where they are needed.

1. Ladies handkerchiefs are on the first floor, madam.
2. We saw a light in the Adamscs house and knew someone was at home.
3. If he doesnt come soon hell miss the first act.
4. Roberts shoes are muddy, but yours are almost as clean as when you started out.
5. Its time for the puppy to have its bath.
6. We could see only the horses heads above the water as our enemies swam for the opposite shore.
7. The days work was finished; so we grabbed our hats and ran for the bus.
8. His first months wages went for a suit of clothes.
9. Then he spent two months wages for a secondhand car.
10. Theyre wearing their sweaters. Wheres yours?
11. Theirs are old and ragged, but yours is almost new, isnt it?
12. We shall ask Lucys and Sylvias mothers to be chaperons.
13. Farley and Shalbys store is being remodeled.
14. If youll buy a dollars worth of sugar Ill can these strawberries.
15. Well wait until seven oclock; if he doesnt come then shell have to go without him.
16. Mens hats will be reduced to one dollar for Saturdays sale.
17. If you buy two dollars worth of groceries they will be delivered free.
18. We stopped at Robinsons Inn and asked for a nights lodging.
19. Do you think Dicks speedboat can travel faster than ours?
20. Are those Davids ice skates, or are they yours?

QUOTATION MARKS

Ordinary Direct Discourse

- 92a. Each separate speech of a dialogue is enclosed in quotation marks. Every change of speaker is indicated by a new paragraph. Quotation marks enclose direct quotations (the exact words):

DIRECT QUOTATION: He said, "*We're tired.*"

INDIRECT QUOTATION: She said that *they were tired* [no quotation marks].

MODEL DIALOGUE

- (1) "What's up? Why so silent? Anything wrong, Dorry?" asked Letitia, the fair-haired cousin, reading under the lamp.
- (2) Doris straightened up, but the pucker in her forehead stayed. "I've been thinking about him, Letty."
- (3) "Thinking about him, did you say? About whom—the grocer's boy?"

Note these points:

1. An unbroken speech of several sentences should have only *one* set of quotation marks.
2. Outside comment may be included in a paragraph with dialogue, but it is not included within the quotation marks.
3. A quotation within a quotation is enclosed by single marks.

Never use single quotation marks unless double quotation marks already enclose the passage in which the new quotation appears.

When a speech tag like *he said* or other outside comment interrupts a quotation, extra quotation marks are used to exclude the interruptive words from the quota-

tion. The speech tag is normally set off by two commas.

"We soon learn," he explained, "not to stick our necks out."

"You'll find out," she answered, "soon enough."

A stronger mark (? ! ;) may replace one of the pair of commas if the stronger mark would be called for were the speech tag omitted:

"Don't shoot!" *he exclaimed*. "It isn't a deer!"

"I like fudge." *He licked his lips*. "May I have a piece?"

"I admit it," *he said*; "it is true." [The semicolon follows *he said*.]

COMBINATION WITH OTHER MARKS

NOTE.—Commas and periods stand inside a closing quotation mark.¹

"The overdrive," the salesman declared, "saves fuel."

Other marks stand inside if they apply to the quotation alone; otherwise outside.

He shouted but one command, "Forward, march!" [The exclamation point applies to the quotation only.]

We'll show the brute that we're "weaklings"! [The exclamation point applies to the main sentence.]

Did Savonarola say, "I recant"? [The question mark applies to the main sentence. To place it inside the quotation mark would indicate that Savonarola made an inquiry rather than a statement.]

¹ The Oxford University Press has only one rule for all marks. Any mark is placed inside if it belongs to the quotation; otherwise outside. This rule is suitable in scholarly works where utmost accuracy is required in making quotations. For ordinary writing, American usage is better.

Other Uses of Quotation Marks

b. Quotation marks are used to set off borrowed material and words used in a special sense.

Borrowed material from printed sources (the exact words):¹

On page 248 of Eugene Scott's *New Republic* we found the statement, "Government, like a business, should be conducted by a board of directors." [Always name the source of borrowings, so that you may be free from all suspicion of dishonesty.]

Words used in a special sense (technical terms, slang, nicknames) which might otherwise not be understood:

PERMISSIBLE: The rhyme is called a "feminine rhyme."

The weavers call this tool a "mule."

She's a "panhandler," in beauty shop parlance.

Their name for my friend was "Sissy."

Italics are preferable to quotation marks to set off the titles of books or periodicals, names of ships, and foreign words.

When books or periodicals are shown in italics, quotation marks are sometimes useful to set off articles, chapters, or other incomplete parts of whole works (*see* § 82a). In handwritten or typewritten manuscript quotation marks are often substituted for italics.

¹ An omission from a quotation is indicated by dots. Words inserted by the person quoting are included within brackets.

Amos E. Neyhart says, "Sixty-five per cent of automobile fatalities . . . are caused by drivers' mistakes: driving too fast [for weather and road conditions], delayed braking, cutting in, failure to signal; . . ."

Needless Use of Quotation Marks

- c. Do not use quotation marks needlessly.** Do not use them as a label for humor if your reader is capable of detecting the humor for himself. Do not use them to enclose slogans, proverbs, technical terms, slang, or nicknames if these are such as will be readily recognized by your reader.

EXERCISE

Insert quotation marks and any other punctuation that is needed.

1. Mary smiled sweetly at the conceited fellow Did you ever see a cactus garden she asked
2. Mrs. Brown said the maid I must have Thursday afternoons off
3. Did the maid say she wanted to have the afternoon off
4. Is it true said Mr. Barton that you have been awarded the contract
5. I'll have my hair fixed in a minute Ellen called from the top of the stairs
6. Did the doctor say he would take the bandage off before Saturday's game
7. We all like sauerkraut he said Will you cook some for supper
8. Father this is Richard Hendrick said Nancy He is in my science class at school
9. He began his speech as follows: When I was a boy . . .
10. They all shouted When do we eat

END MARKS

- 93. End questions with question marks, and other sentences with periods (unless emphasis requires an exclamation point instead).**

Why? Where? What next? [A question need not always be a grammatically complete sentence.]

You saw the planes dive? [A question may sometimes consist of words arranged in the normal declarative order.]

She asked whether I was coming. [An indirect question—not the exact words spoken—does not require a question mark. The main sentence is declarative.]

Did she inquire whether I was coming? [Though it ends in an indirect question, the sentence as a whole is interrogative.]

Listen! It sounds like fire crackling. Give us a light, ho!

NOTE 1.—Excessive use of the exclamation point is undesirable. Unless the emotion to be conveyed is strong and genuine, use a comma within the sentence, a period at the end.

NOTE 2.—A question mark or an exclamation point is often used within a sentence, but should not be followed by a comma, semicolon, or period.

Where are the stocks? the bonds? the evidences of prosperity? [Do not place commas or semicolons after the first two question marks.]

"Hit this one!" yelled the pitcher. [Do not place a comma or a period after the exclamation point.]

A question mark within parentheses may be used to show uncertainty as to the correctness of some item in a statement.

Shakespeare was born April 23(?), 1564.

NOTE 3.—The use of a question mark or exclamation point as a label for humor or sarcasm is childish.

Immediately the social lion rose to his feet. [Do not place a question mark in parentheses after *the social lion*.]

The generous Mr. Crabb refused to give anything. [Do not place an exclamation point in parentheses after *generous*.]

EXERCISE

Insert the correct end mark, according to rule.

1. Halt Drop that gun
2. Did she say when she would arrive
3. He asked whether I would be there
4. "Hold fast" shouted the captain
5. Who told him to polish the car
6. Did you tell Jane you would call her at six o'clock
7. Where did you go What did you see When did you return
8. Am I my little brother's nurse, do you think
9. Where are the peaches the plums the grapes Where is all the fruit that we brought with us
10. "Put it down Put it down" he shouted
11. She wanted to know if we were going to Atlantic City or to Daytona Beach
12. Is the applicant efficient ambitious trustworthy
13. Can your cousin sing dance play the piano
14. Did you notice the hat she wore Wasn't it a sight
15. If you pass the meat market will you bring me a pound of bacon

THE SEMICOLON

The semicolon represents a separation in thought somewhat greater than that represented by a comma and somewhat smaller than that represented by a period.

- 94a. A semicolon is used between independent clauses of a compound sentence which are not joined by a conjunction (but, or, and).

The clouds dropped below; the plane droned along in a blue sky.
His face was pale; his lips were drawn tight.

NOTE 1.—A semicolon is used between independent clauses which are joined by a conjunctive adverb (*see* § 37, Note):

then besides furthermore also nevertheless how-
ever still otherwise hence therefore thus con-
sequently

The door popped open; then the smell of hot mince pies
flooded the room.

He never pays rent; besides, he eats like a wolf.

We have failed in this; therefore let's try something else.

[Punctuation before *therefore* is required. A comma would
be insufficient.]

CHOICE BETWEEN SEMICOLON AND PERIOD

NOTE 2.—Often the writer may choose freely between the
semicolon and the period; in such instances the use of the
semicolon implies greater logical unity between the clauses
than the use of the period would show. Unless this logical
unity is distinct the period is to be preferred.

- b. A semicolon is sometimes used between independent
clauses which ARE joined by a conjunction if the clauses
are long, or if they have commas within themselves, or if
obscurity would result were the semicolon not used.**

He arrived, so they tell me, after nightfall; and immediately go-
ing to a hotel, he called for a room. [If a comma followed
nightfall, there would appear to be equal separation between all
the word-groups. The semicolon shows where the separation is
greatest.]

Lucy enjoyed the dinners and the dancing and the music; and
the whole gay round of fashionable life was a delight to her.
[If the semicolon were replaced by a comma there would at
first appear to be not two main clauses but a fourth noun—
round—in the same series with *dinners*, *dancing*, and *music*.]

c. Semicolons may be used to separate a complicated series.

A SERIES OF PHRASES CONTAINING COMMAS: From all parts of the country—from Bangor, Maine; from Tallahassee, Florida; and from Tacoma, Washington—came letters of inquiry.

d. A semicolon is not used as a mark of introduction. Before quotations or after the "Dear Sir" in letters use a comma or a colon. Before lists use a colon or a dash.**EXERCISE**

Insert a semicolon or a comma, according to rule.

1. We'll have to hurry the bus won't wait.
2. Be here at twelve o'clock sharp or the bus will leave us.
3. The fog, grew thicker and a raw wind whipped in from the lake.
4. The fog grew thicker and thicker all we had to guide us was the red tail-light of the car ahead.
5. Meat is a concentrated food but cheese or beans make a fairly good substitute for meat.
6. Some very beautiful flowering plants come up in the wrong places they are called weeds by the farmer.
7. The problem of the automobile is roads that of the airplane is landing fields.
8. There was silence over the big hall only the crackling of the logs in the great open fireplace was audible.
9. The motors throbbed our plane climbed higher into the sunset sky.
10. The clouds scattered the moon came out a silvery river glimmered far below us.

THE COLON**95. Use a colon to introduce a long or formal direct quotation.**

The speaker began as follows: "Mr. Chairman, I move that . . ."

Use a colon before a series that is used as an appositive:

The process consists of three steps: molding, painting, and polishing.

My favorite novels are the following: *Ivanhoe*, *War and Peace*, and *Les Misérables*.

Do NOT use a colon before a series that is NOT in apposition:

The process consists of molding, painting, and polishing. [These are not appositives. Do not use a colon.]

My favorite novels are *Ivanhoe*, *War and Peace*, and *Les Misérables*.

The colon follows a main clause—a complete grammatical statement. It should not follow a mere fragment of a sentence like *the process consists of . . .*

NOTE.—A colon may be used after the salutation of a letter.

EXERCISE

Insert a colon or a comma when a mark is called for by rule. Add end marks.

1. You will make better time if you travel on one of these three trains the Owl the Chief or the Sunset Limited
2. He introduced the speaker as follows "It gives me pleasure to . . ."
3. My favorite authors are the following Dickens Thackeray and Scott
4. My favorite authors are Dickens Thackeray and Scott
5. A good breakfast for a family where there are children is this coffee for the father and mother milk for the children cereal toast and jam for all

THE DASH

- 96. Make the dash twice as long as the hyphen.** In typewriting, strike the hyphen key two or three times to make a dash. Use a dash to denote an emphatic pause or a breaking off.

"Come back here!" he roared. "You fool! You—"

She was all one could desire. And yet—

This old suit I bought—let me see—eight years ago in Boston.

[Hesitation]

A thick slab of bread above, a thick slab of bread below, and an imaginary slice of ham between them—that's a sandwich.

[Summary]

Use dashes to set off interrupters which are emphatic or split by commas.

I did as I was told—I was too weary to do anything else—and fell asleep by the fire.

Sit in the armchair here—it's creaky, but comfortable—and put your feet on the table.

Everybody—every Tom, Dick, and Harry—is invited to this neighborhood dance.

Certain building supplies—for example, steel—never remain at a stable price.

Tony Romero—leader of our gang, you remember, when we played under the viaduct—is going on a polar expedition. [If commas were used instead of dashes the reader might at first be uncertain where the parenthetical element ends.]

CAUTION.—Excessive use of the dash is a tiresome mannerism.

EXERCISE

Insert one dash or two in each sentence.

- Each of the girls Susan Helen and Phyllis received a gardenia corsage.

PARENTHESIS MARKS

91

2. We bought our home let me think was it nine or ten years ago?
3. He could not row as fast as Dave could. But then
4. All the wild animals bears, lions, tigers are fed at four o'clock at the zoo.
5. A strange, wild sound a grinding rushing creaking moaning sound rises as the violence of the cyclone increases.
6. "Don't step there," he shouted. "Watch out! Watch "
7. We have three desserts to choose from pie, cake, and ice cream.
8. Fried chicken, creamed potatoes, homemade biscuits that's something we never grow tired of.
9. Put on this coat it's old, but warm or else get in there by the fire.
10. I told them about the accident I had no other choice and asked where I could find a traffic officer.

PARENTHESIS MARKS AND BRACKETS

Parenthesis Marks

97a. Use parentheses for asides, for business confirmations, and for slipping in useful information in the least conspicuous way. Dashes tend to emphasize the element between them, but parentheses submerge it. In general, dashes are more literary and parentheses are more scientific and businesslike.

His testimony is conclusive (unless, to be sure, we find that he has perjured himself). [The parentheses enclose a confidential aside. To substitute a dash before *unless* would emphasize the aside and suggest more strongly that the man *had* perjured himself.]

For the enclosed five dollars (\$5) please send me . . .

For the enclosed five (5) dollars please send me . . .

COMBINATION WITH OTHER MARKS

The main part of a sentence which contains a parenthesis is punctuated exactly as it would be if the parenthetic matter were struck out.

There will be a change in schedule (see Monday's bulletin); the limited train will leave at 5 o'clock.

The cost of printing the booklet is ninety dollars and fifty cents (\$90.50).

Brackets

- b.** Brackets are used to insert explanations, corrections, or omitted matter in the body of a quotation. (They separate the words of the quoter from the words of the person quoted.) Explanatory matter inserted by the original writer is enclosed within parentheses.

The most interesting examples of this type of poetry [the popular ballad] are the famous ballads produced near the Scottish border (Chevy Chase, Fair Helen of Kirkconnel Lee, etc.).

In the preceding example the words within parentheses were inserted by the original writer, and the words within brackets were inserted by a student to explain what "this type of poetry" means.

EXERCISE

Insert parentheses in the following sentences.

1. Please credit the enclosed ten dollars \$10 to my account.
2. For the enclosed fourteen 14 dollars please send me one Queen lawnmower with rubber tires and sixteen-inch blade, sending it by Railway Express, charges collect.

3. The March meeting of the Clipper Club see Sunday's issue of the *Courier* has been postponed until after the spring vacation.
4. He handed the reward five one-dollar bills to my sister when she returned the purse.
5. The party was bound for the Klondike I had to search the cyclopedia to learn that it is a mining district in northwestern Canada , but had planned to go into the country over a new and untraveled route.

**SUPERFLUOUS OR WRONGLY
USED MARKS**

Superfluous Commas

8a. Do not use a comma between elements that are related closely in grammar.

1. VERB-OBJECT: She asked why we were late [Indirect discourse].
2. PREPOSITION-OBJECT: We were weary of fish, potatoes, and pie.
3. VERB-COMPLEMENT: This weather is what I would call real winter.
4. ADJECTIVE-NOUN: A tall, solemn, antique clock stands in the hall.
5. CONJUNCTION-NOUN: It was not gold, but sand.
6. SUBJECT-VERB: The insignia on the sleeve of the veteran's blouse attracted Tim's attention.
7. SUBJECT CLAUSE-VERB: That they intend to strike is certain.
8. PAIRED NOUNS: Our game fish include bass and trout.
9. PAIRED PHRASES: I'll not be outdone in courtesy or in patience.
10. BEGINNING OR END OF A SERIES (unless called for by some other rule): We need sand, gravel, cement, and water to make concrete.

NOTE.—An interruptive element which is set off by *two* commas may separate elements closely related in grammar (*see* § 90a).

Unnecessary Doubling of Marks

- b. Avoid unnecessary doubling of marks.** Question mark and exclamation point may replace the comma, semicolon, or period; ordinarily the two should not appear alongside.

WRONG: "Where?" he cried.

RIGHT: "Where?" he cried.

WRONG: Someone called Fire!

RIGHT: Someone called Fire!

Unnecessary Colon

- c. Avoid using a colon before a series of items unless the items are in apposition with a noun that precedes the colon.**

WRONG: My brother sent us a present of: mangoes, persimmons, and guavas.

RIGHT: My brother sent us a present of fruits: mangoes, persimmons, and guavas.

Unnecessary Dash

- d. Avoid over-use of the dash and the exclamation point; these marks are effective only when they are not abused by frequent repetition.**

TIRESOME: The mountains were not exactly a novelty to me—I had lived in Pennsylvania— But I was eager for my first glimpse of the Rockies.

SUPERFLUOUS MARKS

9

RIGHT: The mountains were not exactly a novelty to me, since I had lived in Pennsylvania. But I was eager for my first glimpse of the Rockies.

Miscellaneous Errors

c. Avoid intrusive apostrophes, quotation marks, and other marks.

1. Use no apostrophe in the possessive pronouns *its*, *ours*, *yours*, *theirs*, *whose*, *hers* (see § 91b).
2. Avoid using quotation marks as a label for humor or irony (see § 92c).
3. Avoid using quotation marks around the title of a theme unless the title is really a quotation (see § 80c).
4. Avoid using parenthesis marks to cancel a passage (see § 80f).
5. Avoid using a semicolon to introduce (see § 84c for the correct punctuation of the salutation of a letter).

EXERCISE

Write the number of the rule which determines whether there should or should not be a comma at the point marked by a slanting bar. Example:

That his intelligence is above the average / is § 98a7
clear enough / Mr. Brown. § 90a3

1. That the story is genuine and sincere / is obvious to anyone.
2. Whatever is quickly earned / is quickly spent.
3. Besides iron, tin, lead, and copper / the islands produce a small quantity of silver and gold.
4. Where is my blotter? / cried Brown to his secretary.
5. Reynolds wrote on his memorandum pad / the exact date when the policy expired. It was April 1 / 1945.

6. For salmon, halibut, and all of the more meaty kinds of fish / there is always a good market price.
7. Yes / she gives lessons on / the piano, the accordion, and the violin.
8. The thorn in Teddy's paw / made him go on three legs for days.
9. In our garden we grow fresh vegetables / and from a neighbor we buy / fruit, berries, and milk.
10. I'll tell you / what I will do.

99.

REVIEW OF PUNCTUATION

A. COMMA OR SEMICOLON TO SEPARATE MAIN CLAUSES

1. It was after nightfall when we started but a full moon was rising through the willows.
2. The large drawer is made with dovetailed joints and the two smaller drawers are made with simple rabbeted joints.
3. You can cheer up your turn comes next.
4. The plane is taking on the transcontinental mail sacks and the motor is warming up.
5. Coffee or chocolate is served for breakfast and milk or orange juice is served for lunch.
6. A canoe is like a balky horse its behavior depends on the skill of the rider.
7. The usher told us there was standing room only but we managed to find seats in the last row.
8. The floor was bare and spotlessly clean and the only furniture was a large wooden table.
9. Hang on tight we're taking a bad curve.
10. For miles and miles he struggled through the snowdrifts and when at last he reached the cabin he had barely strength enough to knock on the door.

B. THE COMMA TO SEPARATE ITEMS OF A SERIES

1. The plane climbed higher higher against the stiff wind.
2. Over sea over land we go zooming.
3. The rain lashed the trees beat down the tasseled wheat.
4. Smoke curled slowly silently toward the ceiling.
5. This one egg looked lonely inadequate silly.
6. A wet shivering dog growled and barked at us.
7. Chickens goats children played together.
8. This city-bred well-educated girl married an almost illiterate cow-hand.
9. The Ohio River the Missouri River the Colorado River—
which is the longest and biggest?
10. All her favorite flowers—violets daisies roses morning glories
—grew here in one garden.

C. COMMAS TO ENCLOSE A PAREN- THETIC ELEMENT

1. The equipment at the mine however has depreciated from
lack of use.
2. The Burton house is haunted by a ghost the spirit of Old
Captain Burton.
3. "Yes" said a weary voice "the installation crew had already
gone out Mrs. Harris when you called."
4. Lewis Norton began working for the Monroe Company on
July 15 1938.
5. No our main factory is at 136 Gray Street Camden New Jer-
sey.
6. You ought to know I should think that puns on people's
names are the least excusable.
7. "That's not right" said the butcher as he eyed Orin's thumb
leaning gently against the scale. "Here shove it man." With

that he grabbed Orin's hand and pushed the scale down half a pound.

8. Jamestown a typical one-industry town was hard hit by the shortage of aluminum.
9. The area of the Commerce Building three city blocks is not too great for present needs.
10. Mr. Chairman I move that dues be one dollar a year.

D. ALL USES OF THE COMMA—A REVIEW

1. Here in the jungle the trees were giant ferns and mosses grew waist-high.
2. Fools need advice most but only wise men are the better for it.
3. At St. George Utah we had the poorest meal of the trip and at Romney West Virginia we had the best.
4. Banks should lend only on staple commodities those which have a steady trustworthy demand.
5. The freight cars are placed on boats or the freight is transferred from the cars to the boats.
6. The overland express crack train of the line was late but the hum of its approach sounded along the rails.
7. Put an alcohol lamp under the test tube light it and watch the results.
8. Mr. Batwing dominated the spectacle in a huge-brimmed black Spanish hat.
9. A cord of wood is eight feet long four feet wide and four feet high.
10. "On Sunday evenings" she explained "we always sing our favorite songs."

E. ALL USES OF THE COMMA—A REVIEW

1. His lack of mathematics however proved to be a hindrance in scientific work.
2. Dogs bark roosters crow and an early milk wagon rattles by.

REVIEW OF PUNCTUATION

3. Hopefully Knott stocked his farm with chickens geese ducks.
4. On January 10 1943 we skated all day on Fall River.
5. In Richmond Virginia the boys are not often lucky enough to have ice thick enough to skate on.
6. The hangar for dirigibles is 775 feet long 150 feet wide and 120 feet high.
7. That woodpecker must like to work or why else would he drill the barn full of holes?
8. *Amanita verna* the destroying angel is a highly poisonous mushroom.
9. On Friday August 24 we drove for sixteen hours stopping only for gas oil and sandwiches.
10. Charlotte's desk which is in the front corner by the door is rickety from constant bumping by passing students.

F. ALL MARKS OF PUNCTUATION—A REVIEW

1. Have you seen Doris's new wristwatch It's no larger than a dime.
2. The southern route takes us through three states namely Mississippi Alabama Georgia.
3. We were all glad to hear the captain shout Company dismissed!
4. Mrs. Hilbert said to Evelyn That bright red scarf and the purple sweater do not look good together.
5. We searched and searched but Harry's jackknife could not be found in the garden.
6. War brought increasing demand for many important commodities steel copper oil cotton wheat.
7. Your sister so I've heard plays the violin.
8. I will ask Mr. Yates to take us to the station he said.
9. The passage begins as follows If what you say is true . . .
10. He discovered three important clues namely an initialed handkerchief a strand of blonde hair and four hairpins.

G. ALL MARKS OF PUNCTUATION—A REVIEW

1. She asked us where the fountain pen was What pen I inquired.
2. Every one should know such abbreviations as Colo Calif etc.
3. The abbreviation for Louisiana is La the abbreviation for Florida is Fla
4. Hey, there What do you mean by taking my wood Are you a thief
5. He asked where I was going Where am I going I echoed.
6. The shore was barren at least it appeared barren in this dim light.
7. The big dogs remained out-of-doors the pups ate in the kitchen.
8. The trees were covered with snow and icicles hung from the branches.
9. The crisp air of the desert the colors of sand and vegetation the glimmering blue distance these fascinated us.
10. The whole of six bitter oranges the pulp and outer rind of two grape-fruit and the juice and rind of three lemons make a pleasantly tart marmalade.

Index

The numbers refer to pages.

A

- Abbreviations, 255-256
- Absolute expressions, 153
- Abstract or paragraph summary, 293-297
- Abstract and vague writing, 191
- Accept* and *except*, 197
- Active voice
 - defined, 140
 - for emphasis, 93-94
- Address in a letter, 265-267
- Adjective clauses
 - how punctuated, 314-317
 - written by mistake as sentences, 3
- Adjective phrases, 146
- Adjectives
 - after verbs pertaining to the senses, 121
 - classes of, 144
 - comparison of, 135-136, 144
 - compound, 237
 - defined, 144
 - distinguished from adverbs, 120, 121
 - in a series, punctuation of, 319-320
 - "made" adjectives, 121
- Adverb clauses
 - how punctuated, 316-317, 322-323
 - written by mistake as sentences, 3
- Adverb phrases, 146
- Adverbs
 - classes of, 145
 - comparison of, 135-136, 145
 - distinguished from adjectives, 120, 121
 - in commands, 120, *Note* 2
 - misplaced, 48-49
- Affect* and *effect*, 197

Agreement

- after an intervening noun, 117-118
 - after collective nouns, 116-117, 118-119
 - after compound subjects, 118
 - after nouns with plural forms, 119
 - after *or* or *nor*, 118
 - after *some* of, 118-119
 - after *that* kind, 116, *Note*
 - after *there is (are)*, 117
 - doesn't*, *don't*, 119, 200
 - each*, *everyone*, etc., 116
 - in gender, 116
 - in person, 116
 - none*, number of, 116
 - of pronoun with antecedent, 116-117
 - of verb with subject, 117-119
- Ain't*, 197
- Aliveness, 190-191
- All the farther*, 197
- Allusion* and *illusion*, 197
- Almost*, position of, 48-49
- Already* and *all ready*, 197
- Alright*, 197
- Alterations, 249
- Also*, correct use of, 72
- Altogether* and *all together*, 197
- And* before a subordinate phrase or clause, 29-30
- And etc.*, 72
- And* used to excess, 26, 27-29
- And which* construction, 29-30, 197
- Ante-* vs. *anti-*, 227
- Antecedent
 - agreement of pronoun with, 116-117
 - defined, 150
 - faulty reference to,
 - half-lost antecedent (divided, in-

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

- Antecedent**—*continued*
 conspicuous, or remote antecedent), 41-42
 impersonal constructions, 40, *Note*
 no antecedent (broad reference), 39-40
Anybody, anyone, number of, 116
Anyplace, 198
Apostrophe, 325-327
 in contractions, 325
 with possessives, 110-111, 326-327
Appearance of manuscript, 247-250
Application for a position, 263, 267-268
Appositives
 defined, 150
 punctuation of
 commas around, 309-310
 dashes around, 338
 sometimes introduced by a colon, 337
 used for subordination, 28
 wrongly used as sentences, 3
Articles
 defined, 150
 idiomatic use of, 186
 omission of, 4, 186
As, incorrect use of, 72-73, 198
As . . . as, correct use of, 73
As . . . long as, correct use of, 73
As . . . well as, correct use of, 73
Aspect of the verb, 140
Auxiliary
 defined, 151
 omitted, 5
 use of, 126-128
Awful, abuse of, 198
- Balanced structure**, 57-58, 59-60, 91-92
Barbarisms, 195-196
Base word in forming possessives, 110-111
Be
 forms of the verb, 154
 nominative with, 111-112
Because clauses, 65, 198
 Beginning of a sentence, 98
Being as, 73
Being that, 73
Between, 198
 Biographical works, list of, 302-304
Blame on, 198
 Body of a letter, 261-263
Books
 giving information about, 12, *Note*
 how to find, 298-304
 how to outline, 283-288
 how to study, 289-297
 lists of reference works, 302-304
Borned, 198
Borrowing material, 249-250, 291-293, 331
Both . . . and, 59-60
Brackets, 250, 340
 Breaking a word into syllables at the end of a line, 257-259
 Brevity for emphasis, 97
 Broad reference, 39-40
 Broken series, punctuation of, 318-320
Bursted, 199
 Business letters, 259-268
Bust or busted, 199
But used to excess, 68, *Note*
But what, 73, 199

B

- Bad, feel bad, look bad*, 121
Balance, colloquial use of, 198
Balanced sentences, 57-58, 59-60, 91-92
 350

C

- Cacophony**, 192-193
Can and may, 199
 Canceling or inserting words, 249
Cannot help but, 64, 199

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

- Capitals, 250-253
 - common-noun elements of proper names, 252
 - divisions of a country, 251
 - family relationships, 251, 253
 - first word of a sentence or quotation, 250
 - important words in titles of books, 251
 - I, O*, and abbreviations, 253
 - proper names, 251-253
 - races and languages, 251
 - school classes, etc., 251, 253
 - titles preceding a name, 251
 - trade names, 252
- Card catalogue, 300-301
- Case
 - defined, 151
 - following *than*, or *as*, 113
 - in an appositive, 111
 - in a prepositional phrase, 112-113
 - possessive, 110-111
 - predicate nominative, 111-112
 - who* or *whom*, 113
 - with infinitives, 112, *Note 1*
- Caused by*, 64-65, 199
- Change, unnecessary
 - in construction, 64-65
 - in mode, 61-62
 - in number, 62-63
 - in sentence plan, 64-65
 - in subject, 61-62
 - in tense, 62-63
 - in voice, 61-62
- Changing *y* to *i*, 235
- Choppy sentences, 24-25
- Claim*, 199
- Classification, logical, 58
- Clause-object, 113
- Clauses
 - cause, 65, *Note*
 - coordinated loosely, 26, 27-29
 - dangling elliptical, 45-46
 - defined, 151, 157, 158
 - main and subordinate, 157
 - misplaced, 41-42
 - misused as sentences, 3-4
 - restrictive and non-restrictive, punctuation of, 314-317
 - subordinate, not to be used as complete sentences, 3-4
 - subordination faulty, 24-25, 27-29
 - to be reduced to phrases, 87-88
 - when* or *where* clauses, 64-65
- Clearness, 39-77
 - coherence, 44-51
 - consistency, 61-66
 - parallel structure, 57-58
 - reference, 39-42
 - use of connectives, 67-76
- Clear thinking
 - comparisons, 9, 10-11, 277-278
 - definitions, 64-65, *Note*; 278-279
 - links missing, 12-13, 276
 - logical agreement, 116-117, 117-119, 122-124
 - negatives, 65-66
 - orderly arrangement, 50-51, 273-276
 - outlining, 283-288
 - ranking of ideas, 89-90
 - superfluous details, 23
 - unrelated ideas, 20-21, 273-274
- Climax, 89-90
- Close of a letter, 263-265
- Coherence
 - in the paragraph, 274-276
 - by clear order, 274-275
 - by parallelism, 275-276
 - by reference words, 275
 - by signals, 276
 - in the sentence, 44-51
 - awkwardly separated elements, 49-50
 - bunched modifiers, 47
 - dangling participle, 44-45
 - illogical order, 50-51
 - intercepted modifier, 46-47

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

- Coherence—continued**
 miscellaneous dangling elements, 45-46
 misplaced adverb or directive, 48-49
 split infinitive, 49-50
 squinting modifier, 47-48
 transitions not supplied, 12-13
 unnatural order, 50-51
- Collective nouns, number of, 116-117, 118-119**
- Colloquialisms, 194, 196-211**
- Colloquial tone, harmony in use of, 194**
- Colon, 336-337**
- Colon not needed, 337, 342**
- Colorless words, 190**
- Comma, 309**
 enclosing
 appositives, 309-310
 conversational extras, 310-312
 dates, addresses, 310
 non-restrictive modifiers, 314-318
 separating
 main clauses joined by a conjunction, 321-322
 runjoined words, 322-324
 series, 318-320
 superfluous, 341
- Comma splice, 18-20, 321-322, 335**
- Command, subjunctive to express, 130**
- Comparison, inaccurate, 9, 10-11**
- Comparison of adjectives and adverbs, 135-136, 151**
- Comparison or contrast as a method of developing a paragraph, 277-278**
- Completed, 199**
- Complement of a verb, 152**
- Completeness of thought, 3-14**
- Completer of a verb, 152**
- Compound nouns, plural of, 235**
- Compound numbers, 237**
- Compound sentence, faulty, 27-28**
- Compound words, 237-239**
- Conciseness, 177-179**
- Concreteness, 92-93, 190-191**
- Condition contrary to fact, subjunctive for, 129**
- Conjugation, 141, 152, 154, 159**
- Conjunctions**
 defined, 146
 lists, 69-70, *Note*, 71-76
 repeated for clearness, 5
 subordinating, 146
- Conjunctive adverbs**
 defined, 70, *Note*
 punctuation with, 334, *Note* 1
- Connectives**
 confusing repetition of, 68, *Note*
 coordinating, 69-70, *Note*
 defined, 67
 inexact, 69-70, 72-76
 listed according to meaning, 71-72
 omitted, 67-68
 subordinating, 70, *Note*
- Considerable, 199**
- Consistency**
 in grammatical form, 61-62, 62-63
 in mechanics, 247
 in style, 194-196
- Consonants, final (in spelling), 232**
- Construction**
 balanced, 57-58, 59-60, 91-92
 defined, 148
 incomplete, 64-65, 122-123
 loose, 89
 mixed, 64-65, 122-123
 repeated wrongly, 68
 split, 49-50
- Contact, 199**
- Contractions, apostrophe with, 325**
- Contrast for emphasis, 91-92**
- Coordinating connectives, 69-70, *Note***
- Coordination**
 ambiguous, 22, 29-30
 defined, 152
 excessive, 26, 27-29, 29-30
- Copula, 154**

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

Correlatives, 59-60
Could of, 199
Credible and creditable, 199

D

Dangling elements in general, 44-45,
 45-46
 Dangling elliptical clause, 45-46
 Dangling gerund, 45-46
 Dangling infinitive, 45-46
 Dangling participle, 44-45
 Dangling prepositional phrase, 45-46
 Dash, 338
 Dash not needed, 342
De- vs. *dis-*, 227
 Declension defined, 152
 Definition
 form of, 64-65, *Note*
 developing a paragraph by, 278-279
 Deletions, 249
 Details
 emphatic, 92-93
 superfluous, 23
 Developing the paragraph, methods of,
 276-281
 Dialectal words, 195-196
 Dialog
 paragraphing, 272-273
 punctuation before, 311, 336
 punctuation in, 329
 Dictionaries, 188-189, 221, 302
 Diction, 177-215
 colloquialisms, 194, 196-211
 conciseness, 177-179
 dialectal words, 195-196
 exact idiom, 185-187
 exact word, 187-189
 good use, 196-211
 list of faulty diction, 196-211
 list of trite expressions, 182
 repetition, 96-100
 slang, 183-184

Different than, 73, 199
 Direct address, 152
 Direct discourse to vary one's style, 99
 Direct quotations, how to punctuate,
 329
 Directive expressions
 misplaced, 48-49
 punctuation of, 310
Directly, correct use of, 73
Disremember, 199
 Divided reference, 42
 Dividing a word at the end of a line,
 257-259
 Division of material into paragraphs,
 271-274
Doesn't, don't, agreement of, 119
Done, misuse of, 199
Don't, 200
 Double capacity, words in, 6, *Note*; 123-
 124
 Double negative, 65-66
 Double punctuation, 342
 Doubling a final consonant, 232-233
 Doubt, subjunctive to express, 130
Drowned, 200
Due to, 64-65, 200
 Duplication, 124

E

Each, every, number of, 116
 Ease, naturalness, 192-193
 Echoed sounds, 100
ei or *ie*, 231
Either, number of, 116
Either . . . or, 59-60
 Element, defined, 152
 Elimination, use of, 280
 Ellipsis
 after *than* or *as*, 113-114
 defined, 153
 misuse of, 45-46
 permissible use of, 5, *footnote*
Emigrate and immigrate, 200

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

Emphasis

- by climax, 89-90
- by concreteness, 92-93
- by parallelism, 91-92
- by periodic structure, 89-90
- by position, 85
- by repetition, 95-96
- by separation, 86
- by subordination, 87-88
- by variety, 96-100
- Encyclopedias, list of, 302-304
- Ending of a sentence, 85
- End marks, 332-333
- Endorsing a theme, 247
- Enthuse*, 200
- Enumerative method of developing a paragraph, 277
- Etc.*, use of, 72, 200
- Ever*, position of, 48-49
- Every, everyone, everybody*, number of, 116
- Exact word, 69-70, 72-76, 187
- Examples, need of, 191
- Examples in developing a paragraph, 279-280
- Exclamation point, 332-333
- Expect*, misuse of, 200

F

- False parallelism, 29-30, 58, *Note*
- Feel good, feel bad*, 121
- Figures, plural of, 235, 327
- Figures, use of, 256
- Figures of speech, 194-195
- Final consonant (in spelling), 232-233
- Final *e* before a suffix, 233-234
- Fine*, abuse of, 200
- Fine writing, 195
- Fix*, misuse of, 200
- Flowery language, 195
- Footnotes, 249-250
- Foreign plurals, 236

- Foreign words to be underscored for italics, 255
- Formal notes, 269
- Former*, 200
- For to*, misuse of, 200
- Fragment, wrongly used as sentence, 3-4
- Functional misfits, 122-124
- "Fused" appositives, no comma used with, 310
- "Fused" sentences, 18-20

G

- Gender, agreement in, 116
- Genitive, 109-111
- Gent*, 200
- Geographical names set off, 310
- Gerund
 - dangling, 45-46
 - defined, 158
 - forms of, 159
 - with possessive, 111, *Note* 2; 327
- Glossary of faulty diction, 196-211
- Good (or bad)* after a verb like *feel*, 14, 200
- Good usage, 196-211
- Gotten*, 201
- Grammar
 - adjectives and adverbs, 120-121, 144-145
 - and-and* habit, 27-29
 - case, 109-114
 - conjunctions, 69-70, *Note*, 71-76, 146
 - constructions, 148-150
 - double capacity, 123-124
 - elements wrongly substituted, 122-123
 - list of the terms of, 148
 - nouns and pronouns, 142-143
 - phrases, 146
 - prepositions, 145
 - primer habit, 24-25
 - predicate, 156

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

pronoun classified, 143
 terms of grammar, lists of, 139-147,
 148-162
 verbals, 158-159
 verbs, classes, conjugation, 132-135,
 139-142, 154
 Grammatical terms, 148-163
 Greeting in a letter, 259-261, 263-264
Guess, colloquial use of, 201

H

Hackneyed expressions, 181-182
Had of, illiterate, 201
Had ought, 201
 Half-expressed ideas, 7
 Half-lost antecedent, 41-42
 Handwriting, 249
Hanged and hung, 201
Hardly not to be used with a negative,
 65-66
 Harmony of tone, 194-196
 Heading of a letter, 259-261
Healthy and healthful, 201
 High-flown or inflated writing in gen-
 eral, 195
 Historical present, 63, *Note*
However, position of, 48-49
Hygienic and sanitary, 201
 Hyphen between syllables, 257-259
 Hyphen in compound words, 237-239

I

Ideas or details, superfluous, 23
 Ideas
 undeveloped, 7
 unrelated, 11-12, 20-21, 22
 Idioms, 185
 Idioms with articles, 4
 Idioms with prepositions, 185-186
If, correct use of, 74
 Illiterate diction, 195-196, 196-211

Illogical comparison, 10-11
 Illogical matching of elements, 11-12
 Illustrations, need of, 191, 279
 Imagery mixed, 194-195
Immediately, correct use of, 74
 Impersonal construction, needless use
 of, 40, *Note*
In and into, 201
 Inanimate objects, 110
 Incomplete construction, 8-9
 Incomplete sentences, permissible type
 of, 5, *footnote*
 Incomplete thought, 8-9
 Indefinite *it*, *you*, *they*, 40, *Note*
 Indentation
 in letters, 261
 in ordinary writing, 248
 in outlines, 284
 in paragraphs, 271-272
 Independent clauses, punctuation of,
 321, 334-335
 Independent element, 153
 Independent ideas, 20-21
 Indexes to books and periodicals, list
 of, 303
 Indirect object, 155
 Infinitive
 case with, 112, *Note 1*
 dangling, 45-46
 defined, 153, 158
 sign of, to be repeated, 5
 split, 49-50
 tense of, 125-126
 Inflection defined, 154
 Informal writing, 194
 Information, how to get, 298-304
Instant and *instance*, 201
 Intensives, 8-9, *Note*; 201
 Intercepted modifiers, 46-47
 Interjections, 8-9, *Note*
 defined, 146
 punctuation of, 311
 Interpolations in a quotation, 250,
 Note; 329

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

- Interrupters
 - effect on case, 113
 - set off by commas, 309-312
 - set off by dashes, 338
- Intrusive punctuation, 341-343
- Invitations, formal, 269
- Irrelevance
 - in the paragraph, 273-274
 - in the sentence, 20-21
- Is when or is where* statements, 64-65, *Note*
- Italics, 254
 - for foreign words, 255
 - for names of ships, 254
 - for quoted titles, 254
 - for words out of context, 255
 - not to be overused merely for emphasis, 255
- Its* (possessive adjective), without apostrophe, 110

- J**
- Jargon, 180-181
- Jargon in letters, 262
- Joint possession, 327

- K**
- Key words to be repeated
 - for emphasis, 95-96
 - for parallelism, clearness, 4-6
- Kind of*, colloquial use of, 202

- L**
- Lady* as a genteelism, 202
- Later* and *latter*, 202
- Lead* and *led*, 202
- Learn* and *teach*, 202
- Leave* and *let*, 202
- Legible handwriting, 249
- Length of paragraph, 271-272
- Length of sentences, 20-21, 23, 24-25, 26, 97
- Less* and *fewer*, 202
- Letters, 259-269
 - business letters
 - body, 261-263
 - close, 263-265
 - greeting, 259-261, 263-264
 - heading and inside address, 259-261
 - model, 267-268
 - superscription, 265-267
 - personal letters, 268-269
- Liable, likely, apt*, 202
- Library, use of a, 298-304
- Lie* and *lay*, 132, 202
- Like* (for *as*), 74, 203
- Linking verbs defined and conjugated, 154
- Link in thought lacking, 12-13, 273
- List
 - for spelling, 239-243
 - of connectives, 69-70, *Note*; 71-76
 - of grammatical terms, 139-147, 148-162
 - of prepositions, 145
 - of principal parts, 132-135
 - of words confused in spelling, 228-230
 - of words incorrectly used, 197-211
- Laterally* misused, 203
- Locate* misused, 203
- Logical conformity and agreement, 10-11, 11-12, 116-117, 117-119, 122-124
- Logical division of material into paragraphs, 271-274
- Logical sequence, 50-51
- Looks good, looks bad*, 121
- Loose sentence, 89
- Lose* and *loose*, 203
- Lose out*, colloquial use of, 203
- Lots of*, colloquial use of, 203

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

M

- Main clause
 - defined, 157
 - how punctuated, 321, 334-335
- Main idea to be expressed in the main clause, 30-31
- Manuscript, 247-250
- Might of*, vulgarism for *might have*, 203
- Misjoined words, comma to separate, 322
- Misleading parallelism, 29-30, 58, *Note*
- Misplaced word, 48-49
- Mixed constructions, 64-65, 122-123
- Mixed idioms, 186
- Mixed imagery, 194-195
- Modal aspects and modal auxiliaries, 140
- Mode
 - definition of, 140
 - faulty shift in, 61-62, 128-129
 - use of subjunctive, 129-130
- Modifiers
 - dangling, 44-45, 45-46
 - defined, 154-155
 - grouping of, 46-47
 - intercepted, 46-47
 - misplaced, 48-49
 - needless separation of related, 46-47, 49-50, 50-51
 - squinting, 47-48
 - turning statements into, 28-29
 - when set off by commas, 314-317
 - wrongly used as sentences, 3-4
- Mood. *See* Mode
- Most*, colloquial use of for *almost*, 203

N

- Namely* and *for example*, punctuation of, 311-312
- Names ending in *s*, possessive of, 110-111, 326-327

- Natural ranking of ideas, 89-90
- Natural sequence of ideas, 50-51
- Natural style, 192-193
- Necessity, subjunctive to express, 130
- Needless use of comma, 341
- Negative, double, 65-66
- Neither . . . nor*, 59-60, 203
- Neither*, number of, 116
- Nice*, inaccurate use of, 188, 203
- Nicknames, quotation marks not necessary with, 332
- Nominative case, 111-112
- None*, number of, 116
- Non-restrictive modifiers, punctuation of, 314-317
- Nor*, correct use of, 74-75
- Normal order and punctuation, 323
- No sooner when*, 75
- Note taking, 290
- Not hardly*, 64-65, 203
- Not no* and other double negatives, 203
- Not only . . . but also*, 59-60
- Not scarcely*, 65-66, 203
- Noun clause, 158
 - written by mistake as sentence, 4
- Nouns
 - collective, number of, 116-117, 118-119
 - defined and classified, 142-143
 - plurals, 234-236
 - singular with plural form, 119
- Nowhere near*, dialectal use of, 203
- Nowheres*, dialectal use of, 204
- Number
 - collective nouns, 116, 118
 - each*, *every*, etc., 116
 - none*, 116
 - of verbs, 117-119
 - shift in, 62-63
 - these kind*, etc., 116, *Note*, 209
- Numbers
 - formation of plural, 235
 - hyphen in compound, 237-239
 - when to spell out, 256

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

O

- O* and *Oh*, 204
- Object, defined and illustrated, 155
- Objective case, 112-113, 113-114
- Of* misused for *have*, 204
- Off of*, 204
- Omission
 - faulty, of words, 4-6, 67-68
 - permissible, of words, 5, *footnote*
- On account of*, correct use of, 75
- misuse of as a conjunction, 204
- One* or *one's* interchanged with *he* or *his*, 204
- Only*
 - correct use of, 75
 - position of, 48, 204
- Open punctuation in a letter, 264
- Order
 - emphatic, 85, 89-90
 - logical, 50-51
- Ought to of*, vulgar use of, 204
- Outlines, 283-289
 - sentence outline, 284-285
 - topic outline, 283-284, 285-289
- Overloaded sentences, 23
- Overused words, 181-183
- Over with*, colloquial use of, 204

P

- Pants*, colloquial use of, 204
- Paper and ink, 247
- Paragraphs, 271-283
 - coherence in, 274-276
 - developing, 276-281
 - dialog in, 272, 329
 - indentation, length, 271-273
 - parallel structure within, 275-276
 - topic sentence in, 273-274
 - transitions in, 275-276
 - unity in, 273-274
- Parallel structure (parallelism)
 - faulty, 57-58

- for emphasis, 91-92
- misleading, 29-30, 58, *Note*
- with correlatives, 59-60
- with large elements, 275, 276, 285, 286
- Paraphrase, how to, 291-293
- Parenthesis marks, 339-341
- Parenthetical elements, commas around, 309-313
- Parliamentary motions, subjunctive for, 130
- Participial phrase punctuation of, 315
- Participle
 - dangling, 44-45
 - definition of, 156, 158, 159
 - excessive use of, 100
 - forms of, 159
- Parts of speech, 139-147
- Party*, slang use of, 204
- Passive voice, not emphatic, 93-94
- Past tense and past participle, 132-135
- Per-* vs. *pre-*, 227
- Period
 - "period blunder" or "period fault," 3-4
- Periodicals
 - how to quote from, 250
 - in a library, 299-300, 303-304
- Periodic sentence, 89
- Person, shift in, 62-63, 116-117
- Phenomena*, plural, 205
- Phone*, colloquial use of, 205
- Phrases
 - absolute, 153
 - dangling, 44-45, 45-46
 - defined, 156
 - punctuation of, 315
 - turning statements into, 28-29
- Picture-making, 190-191
- Plenty* as a modifier, misuse, 205
- Plural, spelling of, 234-236
- Plurals of signs, figures, 235, 327
- Point of view, shift in, 61-62
- Position for emphasis, 85

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages

Position of modifiers, 46-51
 Possession, joint, 327
 Possessive
 apostrophe with, 110-111, 326-328
 inanimate objects in, 110
 pronouns, 326
 with gerund, 111, 327
Practical and practicable 205
 Précis, writing a, 294-297
 Predicate adjective, 157
 Predicate complement, 156
 Predicate defined, 156
 Predicate noun or predicate nominative,
 111-112, 156 157
 Prefixes often confused, 227
 Prefixes, when set off by a hyphen, 258
 Prepositional phrase, defined, 146
 Prepositions
 defined, 145
 idioms with, 185 186
 in dangling phrases, 45 46
 omitted, 5
Principal and principle 205
 Principal parts, 132-135
 Pronouns
 agreement with antecedent, 116 117
 case of 109 114
 kinds of, 143
 omitted, 5
 reference of, 39 40, 41-42
 Pronunciation as a guide to spelling,
 222 225
Proof and evidence, 205
 Proper names
 capitals in, 251-254
 possessive of, ending in *s*, 326
Proposition colloquial use of, 189, 205
Providing 75
 Provincialisms, 195-196
 Punctuation
 addresses, dates, 310
 adverb clause before a main clause,
 317, 322-323
 apostrophe in contractions, 325

apostrophe in nouns naming inani-
 mate objects, 110
 apostrophe in possessives, 110-111,
 326-328
 appositives, 309-310
 before or after a series, 341 item 10
 between items of a series, 318-320
 between subject and verb, 341 items
 6, 7
 brackets, 340
 colon, 336 337
 dash, 338 339
 direct address, 310
 directive expressions, 310-312
 end marks, 332 334
 interrupters, 309-312
 main clauses, 321 322, 334-336
 misjoined words, 322 324
 non essential (non restrictive) modi-
 fiers, 314-318
 period, 332 334
 possessives, 110 111, 326 327
 question mark, 332-333
 quotations, 329-332
 run-together sentences, 18 20, 321,
 334 336
 semicolon, 334 336
 series, 318-320, 336, 341
 superfluous marks, 341-343

Q

Question marks, 332-333
 Questions for variety, 99
 Questions, tense and mode of, 127
Quiet and quite, 205
Quite a, colloquial use of, 205
 Quotation
 colon to introduce, 336
 comma to introduce, 311, 329
 emphasized by separation, 86
 for variety, 99
 need for accuracy, 250

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

- Quotation—*continued*
 of borrowed material, 249-250
 punctuation of, 329-332
 within a quotation, 329
 Quotation marks
 for exact words of another writer,
 249-250, 331
 for slang and colloquialisms, 331
 for titles, 248
 needless use of, 332
 position of other punctuation marks
 relative to, 330
 Quotation marks *vs.* italics, 331

R

- Raise* and *bring up* or *rear*, 205
Rarely ever, crude use of, 205
 Read, how to, 289-290
Real, crude misuse of, 205
 Reason, statement of, to be completed
 by a *that* clause, 65, *Note*
 Redundance, 124, 177-181
 Reference of pronouns
 ambiguous, 41
 broad, 39-40
 divided, 42
 impersonal, 40, *Note*
 loose, 39-40
 remote, 41
 to a clause, 39-40
 to a title, 42, *Note*
 to an unemphatic word, 41
 weak, 41-42
 Reference, books of, 301-304
 how to use, 299-300, 301-304
 list of, 302-304
 Reference to a title in the first line of a
 theme, faulty, 248
 Reference words, use of, 275-276
 Relative clause, punctuation of, 314-318
Remember of, misused for *remember*,
 206

360

- Remote antecedent, 41-42
 Repetition
 careless, 68, *Note*, 96-100
 effective, 95-96
 for clearness, 280
 in paragraph building, 280
 necessary, 4-6
Respectfully and *respectively*, 206
 Restrictive and non-restrictive modifiers,
 punctuation of, 314-318
 Rhythm, 192-193
Right smart, dialectal use of, 206
Rise and *raise*, 132, 206
 Run-together sentences, 18-20, 321, 322,
 335

S

- Said*, legal use and abuse of, 206
 Salutation in a letter, 259-261, 263, 264
Same, abuse of, 206
Scarcely in double negatives, 65-66, 206
 Scrappy sentences, 24-25
Seldom ever, 206
 Semicolon, 334-336
 Sensory verbs, adjectives after, 121
 Sentences
 coherence in, 44-51
 completeness of, 3-14
 complex (defined), 158
 compound (defined), 157
 coordination in, 22, 26, 27-30, 152
 coordination and subordination, 24-31
 definition and kinds of, 157
 elements (defined), 152, 157
 in logical agreement, 10-11, 11-12
 in parallel structure, 57-58, 91-92
 emphasis, 85-100
 fused or run-together, 18-20, 321-322,
 335
 half or incomplete, 3-4
 incomplete, use of, for special effects,
 4, *Note*
 length of, 20-21, 23, 24-25, 26, 97

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

- loose, 89
- parallelism in, 57-63, 91-92
- period after, 332-333, 335, *Note 2*
- periodic, 89-90
- primer style, 24-25
- run-together, 18-20, 321-322, 335
- stringy, 26, 27-29
- style in, 96-100
- subject-first habit, 98
- summarizing, 293-294, 296
- topic sentence, 273-274
- unity in, 18-31
- variety in, 96-100
- Sequence outlines, 284-285
- Separation
 - for emphasis, 86
 - of unrelated ideas, 20-21
- Sequence of tense, 125-128
- Sequence of thought, 50-51
- Series
 - A, B, and C*, 320
- Series, punctuation of, 318, 336
- Shall and will*, 127-128
- Shift, unnecessary
 - in construction, 64-65
 - in idiom, 185-186
 - in mode, 61-62
 - in number, 62-63
 - in pronouns, 62-63
 - in sentence plan, 64-65
 - in subject, 61-62
 - in tense, 62-63
 - in voice, 61-62
- Ships, names of, italics for, 254-255
- Should and would*, 127-128
- Sight, a sight of*, colloquial, 206
- Simplified spelling, 221
- Sit and set*, 132, 206
- Slang, 183-184
- So*, abuse of, 8, *Note*, 26, 75, 206-207
- Solid words, 238
- Some*, abuse of, 120, 207
- Someplace*, colloquial use of, 207
- Somewhere*, dialectal use of, 207
- Sound, 100, 192-193
- Sounds in spelling, 222-225
- Sources
 - how to credit, 249-250, 331
 - how to digest, 292
- Spacing, 248-249
- Species*, 207
- Specific statements, 92-93
- Specific words, 187-189, 190-191
- Spelling, 219-243
 - by hearing and pronouncing, 222-225
 - by observing, 225-226
 - by rules, 231-236
 - by using a dictionary, 221
 - by visualizing, 225-226
 - capitals, 250-253
 - compounds, 237-239
 - contractions, 325
 - lists, 222, 224, 228, 238, 239
 - pairs often confused, 227-230
 - plurals, 234-236
 - possessives, 110-111, 326-327
 - prefixes, 227
 - recording errors, 220
 - simplified, 221
 - suffixes, 232-236
 - trouble-spots, 226
- Split infinitive, 49-50
- Squinting modifiers, 47-48
- Stationary and stationery*, 207
- Statue, stature, and statute*, 207
- Street numbers, how to represent, 256
- Stringy sentences, 26
- Study, how to, 289-297
- Style
 - appeal to the ear, 192-193
 - consistency, 194-196
 - emphasis, 85-100
 - figures of speech, 194-195
 - naturalness, 192-193
 - periodic arrangement, 89-90
 - variety, 96-100
- Subject of a sentence
 - agreement with verb, 117-119

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

Subject of a sentence—*continued*
 "assumed" or "logical" subject of the infinitive, 112
 nominative case for, 111-112
 unnecessary shift in, 61-62
 Subject in nominative case, 111-112
 Subjunctive mode
 defined, 140
 use of, 129-130
 Subordinate clauses
 definition of, 157-158
 detached, 3-4
 not to be used for principal ideas, 30-31
 Subordinating conjunctions, 146
 Subordinating connectives, 70, *Note*
 Subordination
 faulty, 30-31
 for emphasis, 87-88
 necessary, 24-25, 27-29
 thwarted by *and* (*and which* construction), 29-30
 upside-down, 30-31
 Subsidiary ideas to be submerged, 27-31
 Substantive defined, 158
Such
 how completed, 75, 207
 used as false intensive, 8, *Note*
 Summarize, how to, 293-297
 Summarizing sentences, 293-294, 296
 Superfluous commas, 341-342
 Superfluous ideas or details, 23
Superior than, 208
 Superlative degree in comparisons, 135-136
 Superlative forms, 144-145, 151-152
 Superlatives not to be used as intensives, 208
Sure and surely, 208
 Suspense in the sentence, 89-90
Suspicion, dialectal use of, 208
 Syllabication, 257-259
 Syllables in spelling, 226
 Synonyms, use of, 188-189

Syntax defined, 158

T

Take and, unnecessary use of, 208
 Tautology, 178-179
 Technical terms, quotations with, 332
 Telegraphic style, 5-6
Tend and attend, 208
 Tense
 for general truths, 126
 for habitual action, 126
 for prior action, 126
 of infinitive, 125-126
shall and will, should and would, 127-128
Than misused for *when* or *from*, 75-76
Than or *as*, case of pronoun after, 113
That clause, to complete statement of reason, 65, *Note*
That, colloquial use of, 208
That is, punctuation of, 311-312
That misused for *when* or *where*, 76
That there, illiterate, 209
Them (misused as adjective), 209
Then, correct use of, 76
Then too, 76
These kind, 116, *Note*, 209
 Thin writing, 92-93, 190-191
This, used to summarize, 40, *Note*
This, vague use of, 209
This here, dialectal, 209
Those kind, 116, *Note*, 209
Those, omission of relative clause after, 209
 Thought undeveloped, 7
'Til, 76
Till misused for *when*, 209
 Title of a composition, 248
 capitals in, 251
 not to be quoted or italicized unnecessarily, 248
 not to be referred to in the first line, 248

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

reference to, 42, *Note*
spacing, etc., 248-249
Titles of books, italics for, 254-255
Too, weak use of, 8, *Note*, 76
Topic sentence, 273-274
Transitions, 12-13, 96, 276
Transitive and intransitive verbs defined
and illustrated, 139
Transpire, 209
Triteness, 181-182
Try, colloquial use as a noun, 209
Typewriting, 249

U

Uncertainty, subjunctive to express, 130
Uncompleted comparisons, 9
Uncompleted constructions, 8-9
Uncompleted thought, 4-7
Underscoring for italics, 248, *footnote*
Undeveloped ideas, 7
Unfinished constructions, 8-9, 64-65
Unique misused, 209
United States, article with, 210
Unity of thought
in the paragraph, 273-274
in the sentence, 18-31
and *which* construction, 29-30
choppy sentences, 24-25
excessive coordination, 26, 27-29
relationship of ideas obscure, 22
run-together sentences, 18-20
unnecessary ideas included, 23
unrelated ideas, 20-21
upside-down subordination, 30-31
Unrelated ideas, 20-22
Up, needless use of, 210
Upside-down subordination, 30-31
Usage, good, 196-211
Used to could, crude use of, 210

V

Variety in sentences, 96-100
beginnings, 98

exclamations, 99
length, 97
loose and periodic structure, 98-99
pronouns, 96-97
questions, 99
quotations, 99
simple, compound, and complex structure, 98
Varying the beginnings of sentences, 98
Varying the length of sentences, 97
Verb
agreement with subject, 117-119
auxiliary, 127-128
conjugation, 141
defined, 139
principal parts, 132-135
Verbals defined, 158-159
Verbal phrase detached, 3
Very before a participle, 210
Visualizing, 190-191
Visualizing as an aid to spelling, 225-226
Vocatives
defined, 152
how set off, 310
Voice
active, for emphasis, 93-94
defined, 140
faulty shift in, 61-62
Vulgarisms, 195-196

W

Want to, misuse of, 210
Way for away, 210
Ways for way, 210
Weak passive voice, 93-94
When misused for *than* or *that*, 64, *Note*,
76, 210
When or *where* statements used illogi-
cally, 210
Where at, 210
Where misused for *that*, 64, *Note*, 210
Whether . . . or, 59-60
Which misused for *who* or *that*, 210

INDEX

The numbers refer to pages.

- While*, correct use of, 76
Who, misused for *that* or *which*, 210
Who, whoever, 113-114
Win out, 210
Without misused for *unless*, 76
Woods, 210
 Wordiness, 177-182
 Words
 confused in meaning, 187-189, 196-211, 227-230
 confused in spelling, 227-230
 division into syllables, 257-259
 double capacity of, 6, *Note*
 exact, 187-189
 foreign plurals, 236
 in titles, capitalized, 248
 misplaced, 48-49
 misused, 196-211
 omission of, 4-6
 out of context, italics for, 255
 overworked, 181-184, 188-189
 repeated effectively, 95-96
 separate, 238
 solid, 238
 trite, 181
Would have misused for *had*, 210
Would of, vulgar use of, 210
- Y**
- Yearbooks and other reference works, 301-304
Yourself, wrongly used for *you*, 211
You was, illiterate use of, 211

(2)

